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# College and Research Libraries

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Libraries*

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*Proposal for a Universal Union for  
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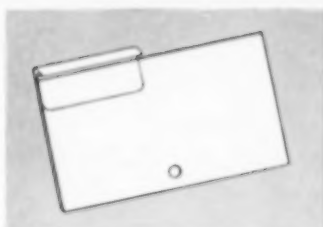


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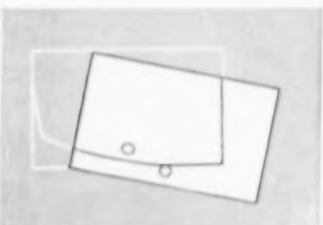
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## Publication and Distribution of Scientific Literature

PUBLICATION IS A TERM that has never adequately been defined. In some areas of science, such as taxonomy, "first publication" is a very important concept—and a fuzzy one. In other areas its definition affects the work of scientists in many ways.

In essence, publication or publishing includes a complex, integrated series of mechanical and intellectual processes involved in the selection, reproduction and dissemination of manuscript material. These processes are inter-related and it is not helpful to concentrate unduly on any one of them.

As indicated in a recent editorial in *Science*,<sup>1</sup> this writer sees no insoluble problems in the publication of scientific literature or other scholarly books. If they are important to mankind, then means for their publication can be found—and, in fact, generally are found. When we complain about the sad plight of scholarly publishing we may forget that somewhere between 100,000 and 1,000,000 scientific and technical books, articles, reports, and documents issued by governments are published annually.

It is in this respect, however, that we must make sure that we understand what we are talking about when we use the word publication; and scientists may have to do some re-thinking in this regard if they themselves are not to place undue restrictions on dissemination of scientific information. Fine printing, desirable though it is, is not an absolute requisite for publication. Movable type is not req-

uisite for publication. All that is required is that the manuscript be *selected for publication*, that it be *duplicated*, in some form, in numbers sufficient to make it normally available to those who want it, and that it be *distributed*. Thus, the restriction imposed by international rules on nomenclature, which at least until recently did not recognize as published anything issued in microfilm, mimeographed or similar forms, regardless of the number of copies produced and distributed, is a good example of the restriction upon publication caused by insistence upon a form of publication that is uneconomical for some types of material.

It was some time before the writer realized that when a United States government information officer refers to "government publications," he is talking about those few printed from movable type at the Government Printing Office in Washington, not even including those printed from movable type at field printing stations. Thus, the United States Department of Agriculture, for example, issues a *Monthly List of Publications*, which normally displays some twenty-five titles per month. When all the items separately issued by this department are counted, however, the total is eight or ten times that number, and the user who relies on this so-called monthly list of publications to find out what the USDA has issued in his field is badly misled.

Without multiplying these examples further, it appears quite evident that there is need for clarification of the concept of publication in the interest of the advancement of science.

The forms in which scientific information may commonly be published, here referring to textual forms, are the book

<sup>1</sup> R. R. Shaw, "Publishing Scientific Books," *Science* CXXI (1953), 17A.

Dr. Shaw is professor, Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University.



and the "paper," with the latter divided into forms such as the congress or periodical article, the pamphlet, and the "report." Although there is no invariably sound intellectual reason why it should be so, the order given above is quite commonly considered hierarchical in terms of the significance of the publication, and, perhaps because of this stereotype, this order of levels of what might be termed dignity-value is justifiable more frequently than not. Who does not take the task of writing a book more seriously than the task of writing a symposium paper or a report of an experiment? On the other hand, the "paper" is by far the more common and speedier method of publication.

In terms of the quality of selection, we normally find a relatively high order of scholarly competence applied to the selection of books and scholarly periodical articles for publication. This is not invariably true, however, and a self-published book or a subsidized book may well have been judged by somewhat different criteria than are applied by a scientific journal which uses a sophisticated refereeing system. Report literature, in the sense in which it is commonly used at present, varies from a slightly sophisticated form of laboratory notebook, required for liaison among a team of researchers in fifty places under fifty contractors, to highly polished, critically selected, carefully edited monographs.

Selection thus varies with the type of publication that is intended to result, with who is paying for it, with the type of use—and, inevitably, in varying degrees, with the quality of refereeing.

Be that as it may; a large percentage of the books that do not get published do not get published because they are not worth publishing—at least in the judgment of those who do the refereeing. This has probably always been true, and the fact that it is relatively easy for a prospective publisher to return a book with a reference to limited market or other polite circumlocution tends to distort the

proportion of allegedly important books that are unpublishable. And, of course, there may always be cases in which the judgment of the best of referees with the best of intentions may be erroneous. Nevertheless, as a spare-time publisher in a small way, the writer can testify that a very large proportion of the manuscripts that reach him so obviously have little to commend them that they are rejected on that ground.

Except for the perennial quarrel about delay in publication, and "promptness" which has never been defined in very meaningful terms, there is relatively little difficulty about publishing periodical articles that meet exacting literary and scientific standards. An unpublished survey of a considerable part of the field of science by the National Science Foundation in 1954 found no evidence that existent journals could not publish the worthwhile material that was submitted to them; and approximately the same conclusion was reached by the National Research Council's conference on scientific publishing about two years earlier. So far as periodical publication is concerned the problems appear to be concentrated about the questions of acceptable length of papers and such highly controversial subjects as the growing tendency to charge the author (or his employer) for part or all of the cost of publication.

There appears to be general agreement that insofar as there is serious difficulty about publishing in the sciences it centers about the publication of books. However, a recent spot check undertaken by the American Council of Learned Societies has not indicated that there is any overwhelming number of first-rate unpublishable manuscripts (in the humanities at least) despite the frequency and warmth with which the difficulties of publishing in this field are discussed.

#### COSTS OF PUBLICATION

Insofar as there are real difficulties in publishing important scientific and other

scholarly books, these difficulties revolve around the seminal book of limited market.

The critical factor in this area is the size of the edition that can be marketed efficiently. The most suitable production process does vary with the type of material involved, with the amount of tabular, notational, pictorial, and pictogram material that must be set. If this were the critical factor, then a simple solution in chemistry, for example, would be to adopt a new notational system such as that of Dyson or Wiswesser, or others, which would bring chemical typesetting into the range of cost of normal typesetting. And while that would be unconventional, this writer would state as a matter of faith that while conventional printed form is preferable, it is not preferable to the point of making publication impossible; the only thing we can not afford, whether it be in terms of cash cost or permissible change in our habits, is to have important contributions unavailable.

However, composition cost is only a small part of the total cost. In the case of periodicals of relatively large circulation the manufacturing cost may run around 50 per cent of the retail price. In the case of books, particularly scholarly books published in small editions, the manufacturing cost is usually only about one-fourth of the retail price, and the composition cost is only about 40 per cent of the manufacturing cost. In chemical works involving large numbers of structural formulae, the composition cost may be considerably more than 40 per cent of the manufacturing cost, but even if it were 60 per cent of the manufacturing cost, that would still be only of the order of 15 per cent of the retail price. Also, the cost of composition is important only in the fact that it is a relatively inflexible cost and is the same for any given type of composition, whether 100 copies are produced or 10,000 or more. Thus the cost of composition per copy must always be divided by the number of copies that will

be distributed, and a costly and beautiful method, such as monotype or even handsetting, which would be prohibitive if divided up among 500 copies, is negligible when divided among 10,000 copies. This indicates, again, that the probable distribution is the critical factor in determining the economically feasible methods for producing books of any type, and it is of particular importance for scholarly books, which in chemistry or other fields never reach the volume of distribution of best-selling novels.

There is no problem in producing and marketing a book in chemistry that will sell 10,000 or more copies—the problem is that there are not very many books in this field that will do that. In that range, even if monotype composition cost \$25 per page (and it does not), it would not appreciably affect the cost of the book—even in a 400-page book, composition would represent only one dollar per copy, which would not be an undue proportion of the cost of a scientific book of that size. On the other hand, a cost of half as much per page applied to 1,000 copies of this hypothetical 400-page book of formulae would make the composition cost alone about five dollars per copy, which would mean that the book could not be produced unless some method other than monotype composition were used. If we go down to 500 copies, which is the range of the market of many scholarly and scientific works, then even if the cost of composition were halved again or even divided by four, monotype would be uneconomical. These figures are not meant to imply typical conditions, but rather to emphasize the relationship of the size of edition to the design of the book, regardless of the actual cost of composition per page, which will vary from country to country and from area to area within some countries.

But, as has been noted, costs other than manufacturing account for about three-fourths of the retail price of the average scholarly book, and for more than that

in the case of trade books. Recognizing that discussion of bookkeeping is always parlous, it is nevertheless essential that this general order of relationship of manufacturing cost to selling cost be understood if we are to ensure unsubsidized publication of scientific books of limited market. This problem, like that of composition cost, would take care of itself if we could be sure of selling a large enough number of copies. However, to sell books in large quantities requires the cooperation and active work of the bookseller and he must be paid in proportion to the amount of effort and time he has to spend. This means that scientific books would have to carry higher discounts to the bookseller than do trade books, instead of the much lower discounts they now offer. This would raise costs, which would in turn further increase the size of edition that would have to be sold to break even, and that would in turn further increase the necessary cost of advertising, sales effort, and so on ad infinitum.

Unfortunately, unlike that of many other products, the market of the scientific book is not only generally small, it is relatively inflexible and efforts to push sales much beyond the normal group of interested specialists and libraries that serve them has in the past merely increased losses by raising the break-even point to a higher level than the market will absorb.

The alternatives that are available are: (1) to raise prices; (2) to subsidize the books and periodicals essential to the advancement of science; and (3) to reduce production and distribution costs.

As indicated before, there is obviously no problem involved in publishing scientific books that will sell 8,000 copies or 10,000 or more. We have a large and efficient technical book publishing industry that can handle these.

The book that will sell 2,500 or more copies, and that cannot be handled by the book trade, can generally be pub-

lished without subsidy by university presses.

The book that sells less than 2,500 copies is the one that concerns us here. Lest we think that that is a small proportion of the total, it should be noted that the director of the University of Illinois Press, who should be in position to know, reported in the *Bulletin of American Association of University Professors* in 1953 that three-quarters of the books published by university presses are subsidized. Even more important than the number of books that cannot be published without subsidy is their quality, since those books which advance the frontiers of science are generally of interest to relatively few and their importance to society cannot be judged by their potential market.

The first alternative, i.e., increasing the prices above those conventionally charged for trade books, is not new. Springer-Verlag, among others, has long charged considerably more for its books than we have been accustomed to consider the going rate.

In fact, in some cases the prices, when translated through the mysteries of international book selling into dollars, come to between seven and nine cents a page, i.e., from \$15 to \$20 for a 250-page book, as compared with one to one and a half cents per page for most trade publications. There is danger in this alternative, since it, like the second alternative, tends to subsidize wastefulness in a field in which we cannot afford waste. If raising the price alone is relied upon then the seminal book may be priced so high that even the two or three or five hundred scholars who must have it cannot afford to obtain it. It does seem reasonable to assume that the price for scholarly books in the sciences has to be adjusted to the potential market. A textbook which can be expected to sell 10,000 copies over a period of three or four years can be priced fairly close to the going rate of trade books. On the other hand the book de-

signed for a market of 500 copies will probably have to be priced at twice that rate. Even in the depth of the depression in the United States, when trade books were selling for one cent per page or less, according to Robert C. Binkley's fundamental study on methods of reproducing scholarly materials, scholarly books cost 2.1 cents per page. It does not seem unreasonable to price books in small editions at approximately twice the going rate for those in large editions. However, one now finds even such things as a symposium volume, published in 1955, in which the cost is reduced by the fact that no royalty need be paid to the authors, selling at the shocking price of \$8.75 for a 270-page octavo book. This type of pricing, particularly since much of the text and illustrations is unnecessary and some of it is duplicative, could become an abuse which would probably further hamper the distribution of scientific books.

The question of pricing is one in which the public generally has fairly strong feelings. In the United States pricing of a book much above one cent per page makes everybody who receives it feel as though it is priced high, despite the fact that the wide variation in storage per page and size of page may make the actual storage content of a page vary by a factor of two or more. In this respect, general and scientific public opinion appears less responsible than that of most publishers who, having a monopoly of their product, could price realistically for books of low distribution and most generally do not do so because of the public stereotype of a penny per page. Recently, even novels have been bringing a penny and a half per page or more, and children's books, which commonly provide only forty or fifty or sixty pages of text have been priced at \$1.50 to \$2.50. The answer, therefore, so far as realistic pricing is concerned, is probably somewhat less timidity on the part of the publisher in pricing books at two or even two and

a half cents per page, if that is necessary to bring them out in small editions. For reasons noted below, however, even that would not make the scientific book of limited market particularly attractive to most trade publishers.

The second alternative is subsidy, and this habit is growing rapidly, particularly with the development of so-called page rates in the periodical article field. Having stated that the only thing that we can not afford is to do without important contributions to knowledge, and agreeing with the Royal Society Scientific Information Conference finding that publication of research is an essential element of research, one cannot quarrel with the need for subsidizing publications when there is no other alternative. In general, however, the objection to subsidizing publications is the danger that we may merely be supporting wasteful methods. This forms a concealed tax upon our scientific research budgets, our scientific libraries, and on the public generally, which should be provided if essential for the good of mankind, but which could readily take over all scientific publishing, since it makes the publisher's task so much easier and lends itself to encouragement of inefficient production.

The third and by far the preferable method, probably in combination with the first, is to design production and distribution suitably for the type of book and its potential market. This means utilization when appropriate of letterpress, or offset reproduction from cold composition, or auxiliary publication, or reduced facsimile. Above all, it means design of the overhead of the operation and of the distribution system and costs of the operation suitable for the optimum dissemination of the particular book.

By and large, too much has been made of production or manufacturing cost. Not only does manufacturing cost constitute a small part of the total cost, but skill in design and skill in selection of sources of

supply may in many cases make what is generally considered the most expensive process the cheapest process. This is true because linotype machines depreciate every hour whether they are used or not and the cost differential between linotype and cold composition for straight text is so slight that it is easy to make cold composition done inefficiently cost more than linotype composition done efficiently, particularly if such composition is done as fill-in work when the machines would otherwise be idle.

It is practically invariably true that cold composition on the typewriter with justified right hand margins, requiring double typing, will cost more than linotype composition for straightforward work. While it is difficult to generalize for all labor and materials conditions under different pay scales in different countries, by and large, typewriter composition is useful primarily for difficult work such as bibliographies, mathematical and chemical material, and books heavily illustrated with halftones.

Bibliographic work whether done in linotype or in typewriter composition generally cannot have justified right hand margins, and suitable design, i.e., placing the item number on the right hand margin, can square off the right hand margin without double typing. Also, the setting of chemical formulae and mathematical equations on the monotype machine is essentially hand work in which both machine and operator are used relatively inefficiently. In cold composition these can frequently be drawn and pasted in at much lower cost than they can be done on the typesetting machine. Similarly halftone illustrations require expensive screened cuts in conventional printing; whereas the screening charge for the reproduction in offset is less than the cost of typing a page of text, so that they are actually cheaper to produce in offset than are text pages. The quality is somewhat lower in offset halftones, but reproduction quite satisfactory for most purposes

can be obtained by fairly careful work.

While the new photographic typesetters, operating on the principle developed by both monotype and linotype, may eventually make it possible to make the composition part of the final typing of a manuscript, thus eliminating a large part of the work of composition, these tools are not yet available, and even they will not eliminate composition costs, since the composition typing would be more expensive than would straight typing, and there would still be the cost of running the tape through the photographic composing element to produce the reproduction copy in film. This might reduce the number of copies at which composition could reasonably be amortized, but it is doubtful that that would make a 100-copy edition economical. Thus, in cases in which it is not feasible economically to market as many as 300 to 500 copies (and possibly as few as 100 under newly developing technology) other forms of reproduction will be needed. The other alternatives that are available include the process known as "auxiliary publication," which was developed by Watson Davis in the American Documentation Institute; reduced facsimile editions, whether a 2-4 diameters or greater reduction ratios; and the single copy processes.

#### AUXILIARY PUBLICATION

Auxiliary publication is an interesting combination of multiple copy production of an abstract of the article or book, tied in with a single-copy service for production of the whole of the original on demand.

One of the important features of this program is that the article is submitted to refereeing, and the journal will not publish the abstract unless the article meets its normal intellectual requirements, but is too long, too tabular, too profusely illustrated or the like to be printed in full.

This technique of auxiliary publica-

tion is not generally considered to constitute publication in the sense of priority of publication and thus has received little acceptance from scientists in the United States. The technique, however, has been applied on a very large scale in such operations as the post-war program for making enemy technical data available. Up to 10,000 articles a week were called for at the peak of this service, through the single-copying method based on the Office of Technical Services abstract journal.

Microprint and microcards are edition processes. The terms are not identical and they are increasingly confused. The microprint process, as developed by Alfred Boni, is an offset printing process. In this process the original is photographed on microfilm at about 20 diameter reduction. A hundred pages are laid up in film form and then burned into an offset plate and printed onto card stock. This provides for accurate indexing on a reading machine, with a hundred pages per sheet.

The microcard process, which was originally described by Goldschmidt and Orlet in the *Bulletin of the International Institute of Bibliography* almost fifty years ago, has lately come into active use. It consists of photographing the originals in microfilm, laying up strips of microfilm and then making contact prints on silver-halide coated cards. Since both of these processes require a rather large investment in preparation of the master copy, both require editions to amortize that cost and to bring it down to a reasonable level. The minimum economical edition for either is of the order of twenty to thirty copies and the minimum level at which they appear to cover all their costs is probably of the order of fifty copies. They do, however, provide a method for publishing scientific and technical books, reports, and articles in editions of less than a hundred copies. Applied within that field they are of real assistance. If applied to publications which have a greater potential audience they may actually

limit the usefulness of the book, rather than broadening its availability, because the high reduction ratio restricts the use of the material to locations at which reading machines are available and to the number of machines available.

A third development in this general area is the sheet microfilm which has gone much further in Europe than it has in the United States. This may take the format of either the microprint or the microcard and has the considerable advantage that enlargement prints may be made from sheet microfilm just as from roll microfilm, while it is not feasible to make enlargement prints from microprint or microcards. Further development of sheet microfilm as a small edition process may be anticipated.

Among the single-copy processes microfilm and substantially full-size photographic copies are too well known to require thorough discussion. It should be noted, however, that in the case of reproduction of articles on demand there are hidden costs in the use of microfilm which are not always considered, and it may very well be that when we compute all the costs, including depreciation and costs of equipment for reading and the extra use time in using microfilm and getting the material into the machine ready to use, that microfilm may be more expensive in total cost for the average periodical article or report than is a full-size or substantially full-size copy on paper. This does not apply to more or less dead storage of long runs of little-used materials, in which microreproductions have great advantages over full-size copies, at least up to the point of use.

It may well be that we could profitably do further research on high speed selection of materials stored in microfilm form and its high speed, low cost reproduction in substantially full-size form for use where and when needed.

A good deal has been done in the development of so-called dry processes. Actually none of these, including the diazo-



dye, gelatine transfer, or dye transfer processes will work in the absence of moisture, so the processes are various levels of semi-dry processes. The one exception is the physical process developed by Nieset at Tulane University which is just coming on the market under the trade name Kalfax. By and large, the dry processes use slower materials than do the silver bromide processes; in addition, except for diazo, they use more costly materials. Thus for most purposes, where there is any appreciable volume of copying to be done, these processes do not provide anything except freedom from the untidy technology of the darkroom, at a considerably higher cost, and generally lower quality, for the substitutes. They are suitable in offices in which only an occasional copy is required.

A better solution would appear to be the new effort towards mechanizing the technology of developing and fixing or stabilizing silver bromide prints automatically within the camera, which retains the quality and relatively low cost of silver bromide materials without increasing labor and materials costs. Another possibility would be the development of technology for direct production of images on dye papers at about the speed of production of silver bromide prints, and at a lower material cost. Neither of these is now being sold.

The preceding discussion does not cover all processes or all the steps in all these processes, but it indicates that there is a wide range of alternatives available in the primary job of communication, and that it is necessary to consider all the factors involved in deciding which is the proper method for a given purpose.

#### DISTRIBUTION AND COPYRIGHT

This discussion of the communication process would not be complete without some consideration of factors other than these mechanical production factors that affect scientific communication. These other factors include restrictions on distribution and methods of distribution.

There are many types of restriction on the free flow of scientific information. One which comes up constantly and which has been used to interfere with the right of scholars to access to scholarly materials is that of copyright. A number of libraries refuse to make copies of materials contained in works that are in copyright; others rely upon general agreements, which do not cover a large part of the material in the collections and which are of doubtful value in protecting the library from an infringement suit in any event. Basically, there appears to be only one sensible approach to this matter, and that is to follow the theory of private use. It should be noted that in spite of a history of some fifty years of copying services in the United States no one can point to a single case in which a library was even brought into court, let alone adjudged guilty of a violation of copyright, for making copies for scholars on demand. In a few cases in which libraries have requested blanket permission from publishers, they receive permission from some, denial of permission from some, and no answer from others (which is effectively a denial). Even where permission has been granted, the owner of the copyright in the journal as a whole may not be the owner of a considerable number of its parts, and if violation is involved, a copy of a single page of a newspaper, from which permission has been obtained, may involve the simultaneous copying of copyrighted feature articles which are not the property of the newspaper.

The confusion stems primarily from two sources. One of these is the natural desire of the representatives of publishers to extend the value of their property to its maximum limits, and the other is the confusion by librarians and scholars of the plain ordinary English verb "to copy" with the legal meaning of copying in the sense that would constitute a violation of the copyright act. There are several fairly clear cases in English law which deal with this point. In the case of *Abernethy*



73. Hutchinson (L.J. Old Series 3:209, 217, Cases in Chancery, 1825) the Court said, "I have not the slightest difficulty in my own mind, that a lecturer may say to those who hear him—'You are entitled to take notes for your own use, and to use them, perhaps, in every way, except for the purpose of printing them for profit; you are not to buy my lectures to sell again; you come here to hear them for your own use, and for your own use you may take notes' . . ." Similarly in the case of *Nichols vs. Pitman* (L.R. Chancery Div. v. 26, p. 379, 381, 1884) the Court said, "The Defendant is a shorthand writer, and he attended and took down a copy—almost verbatim—of the lecture in shorthand; which of course he had a perfect right to do. Merely taking down a lecture in shorthand is not a breach of any right at all. The Defendant might take notes of the lecture and use them for the purpose of refreshing his memory, or for any similar purpose he might choose."

"The question here is whether having taken the lecture down he had a right to publish it and for profit."

And the Court went on to say, "He was, therefore, clearly of opinion, that, when persons are admitted as pupils or otherwise to hear these lectures . . . and although the parties might go to the extent, if they were able to do so, of putting down the whole lecture by means of shorthand, yet they could do that only for the purposes of their own information, and could not publish for profit that which they had not obtained the right of selling."

It should be noted particularly that the *Abernethy* case transferred this reasoning to publication of a book.

Quite clearly, making a copy is not a copying in the sense of the copyright law; and quite clearly it was never intended that private use was to be affected in any way by the copyright. Copyright was and is still intended to protect the author against use of his labors publicly by others for profit without sharing those prof-

its with the author. It is, at least in the United States, clearly and primarily intended to make the author's information available, and it is for that purpose that our Constitution empowers the Congress to grant a monopoly of public uses.

Actually, it would be impossible to stop private use even if it were intended to have the copyright law effect that undesirable end. To enforce such a law would require stationing a policeman with every copy of every book to make sure that no one made notes. Also, since committing it to memory and then using a copyright work publicly is a violation of the copyright, we should have to develop new orders of intellectual detection to determine whether any of the material was being memorized.

Furthermore, if libraries were accessories to a crime in providing copying services, they would also be accessories by providing chairs for the scholar to sit in, tables at which to write, and light and other services to enable him to do it.

This is obviously ridiculous. But why draw the line between selling fountain pen ink to a man so that he might copy, and permitting him to use his own Contoura camera or to have his agent do for him what he rightfully can do himself?

The only reasonably sane solution is to recognize that private use is completely outside the scope and intent of restriction by copyright. If a later public use is made, that may be a violation of a copyright; but that would be independent of whether the violating use were made from the original, from a copy written out in the man's own hand, or from a photocopy provided by a library; the copying which would be a potential violation would be the public use; and the act of making a copy for private use is obviously (to this writer, at least) not a violation of anything at all.

One of the arguments that ought to be investigated a little further is the fear of publishers of books in small editions that the new forms will reduce sales enough to make the edition uneconomical.

There is no evidence that this has ever happened. But to counter a generalization based on no evidence with a generalization based on one case, the writer's own book on copyright was and still is available in microfilm from the University of Chicago Library. It has been advertised in their list of dissertations available from time to time since 1950. Since the author had to pay for the negative it is possible for the library to sell the film for somewhat less than half the cost of the printed book. The printed book was published in an edition of a thousand copies, which were sold out by the end of 1952, and now brings a premium in the out-of-print market. The microfilm edition has sold three copies from early in 1950 to mid-1955. Certainly, if we are going to restrict the right of scholars to access to materials to which they have every right to access, we should have more definite evidence than the vague fear that the publisher may not be able to issue a book because microfilm will take over the market.

Furthermore, it should be noted that none of the photographic processes can compete with the book in print, either in price per page or in convenience of use. It is only in the case of the rare book (in which the author's likelihood of profit is very slight indeed) that the price of the book is likely to be greater than that of a photographic copy.

Furthermore, if we agree that the scholar has the legal right to go to the library himself to copy the book by long hand, but does not have the right to have it done for him by an agent, we are only discarding the well established law of agency, we are in the ridiculous position of insisting that the scholar has the right to make a copy for his private use only if he does so under conditions of maximum inefficiency in the use of his time and resources. If that were the law, then we can only respectfully refer to Mr. Bumble in *Oliver Twist*.

In view of the fifty years of experience in this field and until there is some per-

suasive evidence against the theory of private use, and in view of the fact that there is no court record, in the United States at least, that would give any indication of violation by copying in lieu of manual copying by the scholar and for his private use, it would seem that an unwarranted timidity on our part interferes with the advancement of science.

Copyright is but one of the bars to free communication of scientific information. Some are derived from the fact that no patent can offer as good protection as a trade secret that can be kept, and others derive from the needs of governments to protect themselves in these parlous times. Others result from the fact that the book trade cannot market short-discount books, and still others derive from the fact that currency restrictions still exist in a good many parts of the world, many of which are not reached by even a trickle of Unesco book coupons. In fact, the restrictions on free flow of scientific information are so varied and so great that if it were not for the fact that we do manage to publish many thousands of books and articles each year and to list a substantial portion of them in bibliographical tools and to make a great many of them available through library loans or copying services, this picture might be downright discouraging.

No matter what we do about the reduction of manufacturing costs, overhead and the cost of selling books will still be the major factors in determining whether they can be produced without subsidy.

A far-flung organization, suitable and essential for marketing trade books, costs very little per copy for the 10,000-copy book. It costs so much per copy for the 500-copy book that even if the manufacturing were free, and the pricing were exorbitant, it is doubtful that the 500-copy book could pay its own way in a firm designed for trade operations. The costs of selling books, including design of pretty book jackets, advertising, bad debts, etc. are also small costs per copy

and are necessities in the trade book; they are prohibitive in the 500-copy book.

Much of this stems from the deep rooted belief on the part of authors and publishers alike that a book is a failure if its sales do not run into five figures. But the approach (which results in overhead and selling costs) for the design, production and distribution of the book of five-figure sales is what makes it "impossible" to publish the book which will count its sales in three figures. Until we realize that the minimum essential distribution of a scholarly book is more important than no distribution, we will continue to have trouble with this problem. After all, if a book is available to scholars in 300 to 500 libraries all over the world, its intellectual content is quite readily available to those working at the frontiers of knowledge, and it might, therefore, be assumed that that is our minimum social and professional responsibility for the seminal book. As a matter of fact, if as few as 300 to 500 specialists and the libraries that serve them would agree to take automatically (and pay for) properly refereed books in their special subject fields, there would be no problem of publishing the seminal books in the sciences or other scholarly fields; and since the marketing costs would largely be eliminated under such an arrangement, the price could be held down to a very reasonable level. This would require recognition of the principle of ensuring at least minimal availability, the establishment of narrow categories for subscription, an impeccable board of referees for each of the categories, and, above all, the willingness of those who are concerned about the problem of publishing seminal books, both subject specialists and the libraries that serve them, to do the one thing that would solve the problem of publishing these books—and that is to buy them.

#### SUMMARY

Considered again, in summary, as a communications problems, although

there are some problems, there has been much progress.

We have single-copy processes that can and do make almost anything that exists in the civilized world available to any scholar who needs it, has the perseverance (or librarian) to find it and the contacts to get it.

We have small edition processes, primarily in reduced facsimile, which can produce editions of as few as 25 copies.

We have reduced offset and offset processes that can reasonably produce editions of 100 to 500 copies.

We have a few small, low-overhead publishing houses that can produce editions of 500 to 1,000 copies or more without subsidy; and assuming that the marketing could be simplified by automatic marketing through interested societies and groups, this edition limit could probably be reduced to 300.

We have university presses, which can fill the gap between the 1,000-copy book and the 2,500-copy book with subsidy, or the 2,500- to 5,000-copy book without subsidy.

And we have a strong and efficient scientific publishing industry that can take over from that point.

Thus, counting our blessings rather than our shortcomings in this field, what is remarkable is that we have come as far as we have in the field of scientific communication. We still have problems to solve, and there are a number of areas in which objective study should develop better, cheaper, and more effective tools of communication. But the time appears to have come to give up our pleasant habit of fulminating about generalities about the sad state of scientific publishing. Let us substitute the scientific method in the field of scientific communication, identifying the problems, investigating them to determine their true nature, their scope, and their frequency so that we can determine and apply the suitable amount of effort and the suitable levels of design and execution to their amelioration or solution.

## The Teachers College Library

The following four papers discuss various aspects of the teachers college library and its present role. The paper by Dr. Burkhardt was presented at the meeting of the ACRL Section of Libraries of Teacher Training Institutions, in Philadelphia, July 8, 1955. The three remaining papers present further information on the development and special problems of the teachers college library.

By RICHARD W. BURKHARDT

### Increasing Responsibilities of Teachers College Libraries

THE LIBRARY IN THE AMERICAN TEACHERS COLLEGE is important and of increasing importance, because the teachers college is important and of increasing importance in American society.

It is perhaps necessary to make this statement as an assertion, because the stereotype widely held of the teachers college is not one that assigns importance to teachers colleges. This stereotype, like all others, was founded on some facts, some of which may still obtain to some degree, but a stereotype by definition is a partial description if not an erroneous one. Stereotypes die hard. Who ever heard of a prodigal Scot, Andrew Carnegie to the contrary notwithstanding? The stereotype of the teachers college is a picture of a normal school—a normal school is a place, or was, where persons were trained to teach small children to recite things until they were committed to memory. Often the normal school student completed his high school course while training for teaching. Thus, the normal was little more than a high school, definitely not a college. To my knowledge there are no such institutions in the United States today, but the notion persists, in spite of the facts, like crabgrass in our hopefully tended lawns.

One might well ask why the stereotype persists. Two items appear to give some answers

to this question. There are others which could be mentioned. First, our teachers colleges did have very humble beginnings, and second, the growth and development of the teachers college has been so recent and rapid that some are not yet aware that they have occurred.

The current shortage of teachers is no novelty on the American scene. From our earliest days there were not enough teachers. Students of the American frontier often point out that the first generation of Westerners—whether they were west of Worcester, Massachusetts, Columbus, Ohio, Springfield, Illinois, or Topeka, Kansas—were well read and well educated. Their children, however, suffered from lack of teachers and schools, for the frontier by definition was a sparsely settled place. The task of daily living did not provide much time for learning. As quickly as there were enough people to make a community, the people did set up schools, but finding teachers was a perennial problem. Persons who were older taught the younger. Young women taught school briefly before marriage. Aspiring doctors and lawyers taught school to obtain enough money for their own further study. As teachers became more abundant, longer periods of training became possible. Today many states require five years of preparation for teaching, but the teacher shortage is causing some to mumble about one- and two-year training courses. The teacher education institutions that we know today were begun to

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meet conditions such as these. They attempted to meet a national need within the conception of what education was at that time. They did their work well. One of the finest tributes to our schools and to teacher education indirectly was Henry Steele Commager's article in *Life* magazine entitled "Our Schools Have Kept Us Free."

This was only yesterday. The evolution of the teachers college has been recent and rapid. The first normal school was Samuel Hall's in Concord, Vermont, a private institution established in 1823. The first state-supported normal school was opened in 1839 in Lexington, Massachusetts. These firsts were really forerunners though, for twenty-five or so years later there were only fifteen such institutions in eleven of the states.<sup>1</sup> In 1910 there were 264, three-fifths of which were state supported. Now, forty-odd years later, only thirty remain. I submit the normal school has been a recent phenomena historically speaking.

What happened to the normal school? It grew up to become a teachers college. Bigelow writes that in 1951 there were 229 institutions in the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education that once had the word "normal" in their title.<sup>2</sup> Only five of these were left in 1954. Half had become state teachers colleges and half had become state colleges.

I submit the transformation has been rapid. It was not, however, easy nor is it everywhere accepted as having occurred today. One classic illustration of resistance to this change occurred in New York City where the New York College for Training of Teachers was founded in 1888. In 1892 affiliation was attempted with Columbia University. The first attempt failed because the Columbia faculty said there was no such subject as education—how could there be a college for it? In 1898 Teachers College did become a part of Columbia, although the story about the widest street in the world persists.

One other evidence of recent and rapid growth can be submitted. In 1890 Albany Normal College was authorized to grant its first degrees of Pd.B., M.P., and D.P.—Bachelor of Pedagogy, Master of Pedagogy, and

Doctor of Pedagogy. In 1905 Michigan State Normal at Ypsilanti gave its first B.A. In 1907 the Illinois colleges of teacher education awarded the degree, Bachelor in Education. In 1925 the State Teachers College at Trenton, New Jersey, awarded the degree of B.S. in Education, and in 1935 the first four-year program for the preparation of elementary school teachers was begun.

The little normal training school of the late nineteenth century, with an average faculty of eleven, low salaries, limited equipment, training teachers for the elementary school in one- and two-year programs, has disappeared.

The teachers college of today is characterized by million-dollar buildings, hundred-acre campuses, enrollments in the thousands, well paid faculties with thorough academic preparation and well rounded educational offerings. It is difficult to differentiate between good liberal arts colleges and universities and today's teacher-education institutions, whether we choose as the basis for our comparison plant, faculty, students, or program. If I may mention libraries, *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES STATISTICS* for 1953-54 show that the median figure for book stock for 61 teachers colleges was 52,767, which compares favorably with the median figure of 59,966 for 70 institutions in Category III. This set of figures indicates a high of 168,032 for teachers colleges and 157,888 for institutions in Category III.

The real change in our teachers colleges is in the program offered. The preparation of teachers is no longer regarded as training, but as professional education. Rather little of the courses taught can be classified as "methods." More and more of the curriculum is of a general education nature and what has been called "subject matter."

The changes incident to the transformation of the normal schools into teachers colleges reveal the increasing importance attached to the educational endeavor and the growing realization that the educational practitioner has need of a prolonged, highly specialized technical preparation for his professional career.<sup>3</sup> In addition, most teacher-education institutions offer courses which are

<sup>1</sup> Karl W. Bigelow, *The American Teachers College*, an address, New Britain Teachers College of Connecticut, 1954, p.2.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p.8.

<sup>3</sup> Jessie M. Pangburn, *The Evolution of the American Teachers College*, Contributions to Education Series, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p.126.

not designed primarily for teacher education, but for the general public in the communities in which they are located.

The significance of the American teachers college is not restricted to these United States. It seems to me that there is real evidence that its influence is felt all over the world. For example, in 1950 Chris DeYoung reported to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education that 89 out of 158 institutions in that organization had 950 overseas students from 79 countries.<sup>4</sup> Earlier, 50 Germans had come to Montclair, New Jersey, to the teachers college there. Fifty Japanese were brought to this country by AACTE prior to 1950. In 1951 another group of 150 Germans was sent to the several AACTE institutions. The Institute for International Education reports that there were 34,232 overseas students in the United States in the academic year 1954-55. Four per cent of this group were studying education.

We have, of course, sent representatives from teachers colleges overseas, such as Haggerty of New Paltz who spent a year in India on the Point Four Program. Emens of Ball State was the first person to visit teacher-education institutions of India. There are a host of others that could be mentioned.

People from other lands have always come to our universities and medical schools. The point is that they are now coming to our teachers colleges to learn how to build and rebuild their educational systems. In nation after nation we hear of persons educated in America who are assuming leadership roles in their native lands.

I would assert then that the teachers college of today is important internationally, nationally, locally, and that the role of the teachers college will be an ever increasing one. The stereotype of the normal school will die slowly, but it will disappear sooner if we accept the responsible role with which we are presented.

What about the library? As you know better than I, the library is the heart of the college. I found respectable support for this notion in a recent library journal. Mr. Downs wrote: "It has been my observation that almost invariably a strong college or university

is characterized by a strong well supported library, while to reverse the coin, weak libraries typify mediocre educational institutions."<sup>5</sup>

Somewhat earlier Mr. Tinker had written: "The frequent assertion that the Library is the heart and center of the college is the simple truth. All scholarly work, and all undergraduate study as well, consists either of the reading and interpretation of the recorded thought of the past or of the setting down of new information for the guidance of posterity. This is true of science as well as of the 'humanities.' Experiments made in laboratories are recorded, first of all, in notebooks and later in the learned publications of the science concerned."<sup>6</sup>

One of these gentlemen has inferred that administrators of colleges like to quote phrases such as these, but sometimes neglect to act as though they really believed it at budget time. It will, of course, require administrative support to maintain a good library, but librarians need to present a good program which can be supported. Librarians and administrators will have to work together to obtain a good program. Having been given this rare opportunity to share my thoughts with you, I would venture to volunteer two criteria of a good program, a program which might be the special contribution of a library in a teacher-education institution.

I find that I like the notion that a library ought to be a center for learning and that therefore all pertinent materials should be brought together for the student by the library. I am aware that this is not new and that it is also debatable.

Carlson quotes Samuel P. Capen, then Chancellor of Buffalo University, writing on the library of 1927:

Since the beginning of the twentieth century American colleges and universities have undergone an essential transformation. . . . The body of knowledge with which higher institutions are called upon to deal has been vastly augmented. The natural sciences have had an especially rapid development. New methods both for creating and imparting knowledge in these fields have been devised. . . . To meet these new demands

<sup>4</sup> Robert Downs, "Are College and University Libraries Academic?" *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES*, XV (1954), 9.

<sup>5</sup> Chauncey Brewster Tinker, "The Library," *On Going to College*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1938), p.294.

<sup>6</sup> "Report of Committee on International Aspects of Teacher Education," *Third Yearbook*, (Oneonta, N. Y.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1950), p.210.

in pure and applied sciences, universities have spent immense sums for laboratories and apparatus. . . . Undergraduate instruction in the humanities has likewise been radically modified. The single textbook has given way to a wide range of reference material and the increasing output of scholars tends to make existing materials quickly obsolete. Most important of all, graduate instruction and research are no longer mere by-products. They have become a major activity of universities, involving nearly all the members of the teaching staffs and a rapidly growing body of mature students. It is obvious that these changes have completely altered the position of the university or college library. Demands are now made upon it that twenty-five years ago were unknown.<sup>7</sup>

I was interested in Fleming Bennett's study of audio-visual services in colleges and universities in the U.S.A., which appeared in *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES* for January, 1955, in which 58 per cent of the respondents to his questionnaire indicated that centralization was desirable,<sup>8</sup> although as he pointed out only one-third of his respondents have as yet achieved it.<sup>9</sup>

It seems to me that those of us in teacher education have a special opportunity here. As students of education, we have read that learning is the result of several stimuli, the printed page being only one. We know that if the library is to serve as a center for learning, it will have to make available records, films, pictures, artifacts, as well as all of the other tools of learning.

Thus, if a teacher comes to a library for help in preparing a lesson on the westward movement, we can provide original sources, textbooks, novels, maps, charts, films, filmstrips, costumes, covered wagons, etc. Not only are the facts and the ideas in this library, but all of the different representations of these data so that the teacher is able to select the appropriate stimuli for his students.

We need not restrict our services to teachers. Why is it not equally proper to assume that any student should find in one center the data relative to his problem, and this data in more than one form?

One hallmark of an outstanding library would be its ability to serve as a center of learning materials to an even greater degree than is now true. The other hallmark would be its ability to get the materials to the clientele. In the interest of brevity, let us consider one segment of a library's clientele, college students, and particularly the students attending the public teachers college.

You know that colleges generally are facing increasing enrollments. Colleges are facing not only more students but students whose abilities and preparation for college differ even more widely than before. The current American demand for education for all of the children of all of the people has quite naturally extended into higher education.

Not all of the children of all of the people are equally interested in reading, or are able or prepared to read. Even if they were all well prepared and interested in reading, the present-day competition for their attention is phenomenal. In addition to boy-girl opportunities, fraternity and sorority diversions, and intercollegiate athletics, which have been with us for some time, we now have M.G.'s, Thunderbirds, Corvettes, George Gobel, and Ed Sullivan.

I think it is well to recognize our competition. The older concept of a library as a place where books were kept will, of course, not be able to compete with modern advertising techniques like the man in the Hathaway shirt.

A library is as good as its librarians. Therefore, I am confident that the challenge will be met, and that some students will encounter ideas in addition to those in the picture magazines. This is because of the emergence of the new librarian—the librarian as a faculty member, the librarian as a teacher.

Carlson indicates that as early as 1876 Professor Otis Robinson of the University of Rochester, writing in the first volume of the *Library Journal*, said:

A librarian should be much more than a keeper of books; he should be an educator . . . relation . . . ought especially to be established between a college librarian and the student readers. No such librarian is fit for his place unless he holds himself in some degree responsible for library education of the students . . . it is his province to direct very much of their general reading; and especially in their investigation of

<sup>7</sup>William H. Carlson, "The Trend Towards Academic Recognition of College Librarians," *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES*, XVI (1955), 45.

<sup>8</sup>Fleming Bennett, "Audio-Visual Services in Colleges and Universities in the United States," *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES*, XVI (1955), 11.

<sup>9</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 19.



subjects he should be their guide and their friend.<sup>10</sup>

Although this idea is old, I understand that only relatively recently has much been done about it. Faculty status has been won by librarians in the last one hundred years. In 1927 only head librarians were classed as faculty. Lyle's study of southern institutions in 1948, as cited by Carlson, showed that all librarians had faculty status in 65 per cent of the universities, in 56 per cent of the colleges, and in 90 per cent of the teachers colleges studied.<sup>11</sup>

Here again the librarian in a teachers college has a unique opportunity to be a real teacher, to merit this faculty status. Being associated with persons interested in the psychology of learning, the librarian has learned that teaching is not telling someone something. It is not necessary to lecture to be a faculty member. Teaching is making a person so uncomfortably curious that he will not rest until he has found an answer to his problem. There are at least two significant steps in the process of teaching-learning; upon these hang all the other laws. The first I have referred to as arousing curiosity. The second

is providing the resources for the satisfaction of that curiosity, for without provision of these resources there can be only frustration. A librarian in a teachers college can be a teaching faculty member to the degree that he can get people into the library, provoke them to open the books, listen to the records, view the films, and study the other materials there.

I suppose, to conjure up a stereotype myself, that the old librarian was a clerk of the books to whom the college faculty sent students with reading assignments. The new librarian, conversely, is a college teacher. Here I would like to use President Maxcy's phrase from his commencement address to his Whitman college students, where he said a teacher should be more than a reservoir, he must be a fountain.

Only as library faculty members accept responsibility with their colleagues can we compete with 1955 mass media for our students' time and minds. A library with such librarians would indeed be the heart of its institution, enabling it to exercise increasing responsibility today and tomorrow. The need for such librarians, such libraries, such teacher education institutions is apparent and increasing. I am glad we are going to be meeting this need together.

By JOHN F. HARVEY

## The American Teachers College Library Today

THE AMERICAN TEACHERS COLLEGE and its library have changed greatly in the past fifty years. As Dr. Burkhardt points out elsewhere in this issue, within the space of two generations this college has changed from a small, poorly supported normal school to a large and prosperous teachers college. How and why has this change occurred? How has the library been affected by changes in the college and in society?

### THE COLLEGE

*The Curriculum.*—The old normal school had a very narrow and limited curriculum,

as Dr. Burkhardt indicates. In the nation's schools of fifty years ago, 96 per cent of the students were in elementary school, compared with 75 per cent today, so elementary school teachers dominated the market even more than they do now, and the curriculum was designed accordingly.

No liberal arts or general education program existed. Students were not trained to live as citizens, as voters, or as thinking adults, only as teachers. Nor was it possible to obtain education for any other occupation. No other curriculum existed than that for training teachers.

The present-day teachers college has many curricula. It trains teachers, and this is still its primary business, but it no longer concen-

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trates on elementary teachers, nor is it strictly teacher-training. The enrollment of high schools and junior colleges is increasing greatly, and so is demand for their teachers. Now this college trains teachers for specialized subjects, such as art, choral music, and history, as well as specialized positions, such as teaching exceptional children and coordinating audio-visual and guidance programs. General education has received more attention in recent years with many colleges requiring students to take at least a third of their courses in this area, compared with almost none in 1900.

The enlargement of the curriculum has elevated the status of the subject department so that it now offers a subject field major, and in many instances offers a choice of several different majors and minors. Neither major nor minor was offered in the normal school. The majority of the faculty members now teach in subject departments. Students preparing for secondary school teaching now spend almost half their time in their subject departmental major and minor fields, in addition to the third spent in general education.

Furthermore, this enlargement of the curriculum has naturally led the colleges to offer degrees not connected with teaching. In addition to two degrees in education, my own institution now offers a choice of eight other baccalaureate degrees, ranging from a liberal arts degree to degrees requiring specialization in science, music, fine arts, industrial arts, mechanic arts, and business administration. Undergraduate majors may be obtained in thirty-five areas and preprofessional training for twenty professions. The normal school offered a certificate for teaching only.

The additional curricula add variety to the offerings of the college and appeal to a much larger clientele than did the single curriculum of the normal school, and they allow the college to attract and train students with many different vocational goals. The college has become a community college in the sense of appealing to almost all college-bound persons in its own trade area. Within a radius of 75 miles or more it attracts most of the students who attend college, no matter what their fields. And one-third of them eventually enter occupations other than teaching.

The change in name of many teachers colleges reflects this change in status and en-

largement of purposes. First they were called normal schools, then state teachers colleges, and now many have become state colleges and have dropped the word "teachers" from their names entirely, e.g., Milwaukee State College and East Carolina College. A few have even become state universities, such as Southern Illinois University, Bowling Green State University, and New Mexico Highlands University.

The demand for more school administrators, the enlargement of the teachers college, and the raising of teacher certification requirements have led many colleges to offer graduate work, thus entering an area previously reserved for the university. Masters' degrees are offered in several departments with full approval of regional accrediting associations, and summer school enrollment in several teachers colleges is at least one-third graduate.

*Students.*—The normal school usually enrolled less than 300 students, but the modern teachers college averages 1,200 students with 15 per cent enrolling more than 2,000. This places it at the level of the large college which it most nearly resembles, with the largest teachers colleges having enrollments comparable to the small universities. Teachers College, Columbia University, and San Jose State with 9,000 students, San Francisco State with 7,000, and Western Michigan with 6,000 are among the leaders.

The poorly prepared students of the normal school are no longer with us, though median scholastic aptitude is still somewhat below that found in the good liberal arts college or university. Today, in many states the state university and the large liberal arts colleges still carry higher prestige and attract a larger proportion of the superior students, while the teachers colleges attract more of the less sophisticated students from the smaller towns and farms, the type of student now being represented in college in rapidly increasing numbers. Naturally its course of study and its standards are adapted to its median student and its function as a public tax-supported institution.

*Income.*—With increased enrollment has come increased income. The general prosperity of state-supported colleges has been shared by the teachers colleges, most of which are state supported. Twenty per cent spend

more than \$1,000,000 per year and 5 per cent spend more than \$2,000,000, according to COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARY STATISTICS.<sup>1</sup> Few normal schools spent more than \$50,000 per year.

*Faculty.*—Faculty members also reflect the change from normal school to teachers college. Teachers in the normal school often lacked even bachelors degrees; successful public school teaching seemed to be the chief recommendation. Instructors now are comparable to their fellows in liberal arts colleges. Many have public school teaching backgrounds, and so understand the public school teacher's problems, but have done their graduate work in subject fields. All education courses are taught by education specialists. Lower division courses are not relegated to graduate assistants as in the universities but are taught by full professors as well as instructors. The teaching loads of these faculty members have been sharply reduced in the past fifty years, thereby allowing more free time for course preparation, counseling, travel, and research.

*Causes.*—Why have all these changes occurred? How have changes in society affected the teachers college?

Reasons for these changes are easy to see. Population growth and the greatly increased proportion of students continuing their education beyond elementary school have provided more public school students, demand for more teachers, and more college students. The public schools have become a big business—a \$6.5 billion business each year (compared with \$0.2 billion in 1900)—which occupies a sixth of the U. S. population, so it is not surprising that the teachers colleges have prospered. State governments have been prosperous in recent years, and so have been able to support their teachers colleges relatively well. The newly enlarged and enriched curriculum has attracted a much larger proportion of the students attending college from the immediate trade area. As size and income have increased the college has been able to attract well trained faculty members.

#### THE LIBRARY

The library has shared the prosperity and

changes in emphasis of the modern teachers college.

*The Book Collection.*—The normal school library was much like any small college library of its period. It had a small book collection, little used, full of pedagogical texts, was short on liberal arts books and on income. Textbook teaching dominated, so there was little need for a library. The librarian probably taught a full-time load and was unable to promote library use except for occasional assigned reading. He was probably an ex-school teacher with no special library education.

Today the modern teachers college library is quite different. With a varied clientele to serve—students and faculty working in many different departments—the library's book buying must be as well balanced and comprehensive as that of any other large college. The book collection in liberal arts must equal that of neighboring large liberal arts colleges. Many of these libraries have browsing rooms to promote recreational reading, e.g., Northwest Missouri State College Library, and sizable collections of periodicals for reference and research, e.g., the 1,500 titles received by North Texas State College. In short, they must keep pace with the improvement of other types of college libraries.

These libraries have often developed specialized services to handle their special materials and problems. Some include curriculum materials centers for textbooks and course outlines (the center at Ball State Teachers College is well known), and most have laboratory school libraries giving service to elementary and high school students. The audio-visual center is also an important part of many libraries. Often the teachers college is the only agency in the area training school librarians and so supplies library personnel for most of the nearby public school systems, as does the State Teachers College at Kutztown, Pennsylvania, for instance.

Book collections must often be large and rich enough to support graduate research in several departments. Ten per cent of these libraries now have over 100,000 volumes and add more than 5,000 volumes annually. Teachers College, Columbia University, leads with 270,000 volumes.

*Income.*—Teachers college library incomes

<sup>1</sup> "Teachers College Library Statistics, 1954-55," *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES*, XVII (1956), 76-82.

have risen with general college prosperity. Ten per cent have annual incomes of \$75,000 or more, and a third spend more than \$30,000 per year—good for libraries serving primarily undergraduate institutions. San Jose State College Library spent \$220,000 last year to lead the field.

These colleges also treat their libraries well in terms of the percentage of all college expenditures going to the library. In ACRL statistics, the median per cent for the teachers college group, 4.57 per cent for the 1954-55 year, exceeded the corresponding figure for large universities, liberal arts colleges, and junior colleges.<sup>2</sup> West Texas State College spent 10.8 per cent last year.

**Staff.**—Staff members have improved in both quantity and quality since the days of the normal school library, as should be expected. They share the interests of liberal arts college and university librarians in giving library service of high quality, and they are numerous enough—a seventh have ten or more full-time staff members and a fourth have five or more—to offer many services not found in smaller colleges, and never dreamed of by the normal school librarian. San Jose State College again shows up well with 38 full-time staff members.

Salaries, according to the COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES' figures, compare favorably with those in the other three groups of li-

braries. In fact, median salary per full-time staff member showed teachers college librarians to exceed all four of the other groups. Ten per cent of the chief librarians were paid \$7,500 or more per year.

#### CONCLUSION

If this article has seemed unduly favorable to the modern teachers college, the reason is that comparison usually has been made with the old normal school, rather than with the goals of the modern college. Great improvement has occurred in the past fifty years, but obviously teachers colleges still have as many problems awaiting solution as have other colleges. For instance, the relation between courses in education and those in subject specialization has not yet been worked out, nor is the typical student body quite as promising as we would wish, nor are enrollments large enough to satisfy all the requests to fill vacancies.

We can conclude that the modern teachers college library has emerged from the "dark ages" of the normal school period. The college curriculum has been greatly enriched, and the development and prosperity of the subject departments bodes well for the general education program. College and library will be prosperous so long as state-supported institutions are prospering. Further improvement seems in prospect for this new type of college, part teacher education and part community college.

By HAROLD F. SMITH and CHARLES A. GARDNER

## Curriculum Materials in the Teachers College Library

FOR A NUMBER OF YEARS educators and teachers have given increasing attention to curriculum planning and development. Colleges and universities have offered courses in curriculum development and planning as a matter of course. Boards of education have offered aid to their teachers and administra-

tors by providing "curriculum materials centers."

Teachers colleges have given increasing attention in the last fifteen years to curriculum materials and the special handling and servicing they require, but development of curriculum materials centers has not been uniform and there is scant literature on the subject from the standpoint of library administration. This may be partly because curriculum materials have often been maintained by

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<sup>2</sup>"College and University Library Statistics, 1954-55," COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES, XVII (1956), 16, 84.

the education department in teachers colleges. Now the library is becoming the agency that houses and handles them. Recent indications of interest by librarians have revealed some vagueness about what curriculum materials are and how they may be handled. This discussion, therefore, will deal with some of the aspects of curriculum materials in the teachers college library.

Curriculum materials are aids and/or devices to help the teacher in the development of a curriculum, or to help him improve an existing curriculum, or materials that will aid the teacher in instruction. This includes a large range of materials such as textbooks, courses of study, units of work, standardized tests, and audio-visual materials of all kinds. Audio-visual materials, by their nature and the special problems they present in handling and servicing, are usually maintained by a separate department of the library or the college. For the purposes of this discussion textbooks, courses of study, units of work, and standardized tests will be treated as curriculum materials.

The curriculum materials center is an idea that accommodates itself to the need felt in teachers college libraries to provide a special section for the needs of educators concerned with curriculum study. Since comparison and examination of different materials is an important element in the development of curricula, the library should furnish such a collection if at all possible.

A curriculum materials center should have a conveniently located and well arranged area for shelving and storage. The materials should be adjacent to a study area or conference room, where people using them can hold discussions and examine them. A trained person well acquainted with the materials should make the center a valuable resource. The handling of these materials involves some of the preparation and service functions common to library service, so it is desirable to have a librarian with a background in the field of education.

As these materials vary somewhat in their use from other library materials, so does their acquisition and handling. Textbooks are an example. Textbooks deal with a definite subject of study arranged systematically, intended for use at a specific level of instruction, and used as a main source of study ma-

terial for a given course. Although there are textbooks for elementary, secondary, and college levels, those for the first two usually make up the main part of a textbook collection, along with the accompanying manuals, workbooks, and teachers editions.

Use of texts varies. Undergraduates will compare textbooks designed to be used in a specific subject area or for a particular grade level in connection with work in a curriculum class. Classes studying reading will be asked to compare readers at various levels and to check word counts. Many teachers who attend summer school will spend time looking over the new textbooks in their subject so that they will be better acquainted with those available for the coming year's teaching. Teachers from the college community or nearby will stop in when they wish to check on new publications, and if the college has a laboratory school its staff will avail itself of the opportunity to see new additions. The librarian may find a limited reference use when he is looking for something unusual, such as a special history map, or an illustration that cannot be found elsewhere. Anthologies of literature found in high school textbooks are often excellent and occasionally furnish readings not readily located elsewhere. Sometimes students will use them as helpful review materials.

There are many sources of information listing the publication of new textbooks. On request, publishers furnish catalogs that list the latest edition of a text or series. *Publishers' Weekly* and the *Cumulative Book Index* list new textbooks and workbooks. Advertisements on specific books or series are sent out regularly by publishers. The *American Educational Catalog* is a good checklist. Publishers' representatives, of course, can keep the librarian informed on their companies' publications.

Often publishers will furnish books to the curriculum materials center on a complimentary basis, but frequently with the stipulation that they must be maintained on an exhibit basis and not be circulated outside the library. Requests for textbooks can be directed either to the publisher or to the representative in the library's territory. It is best to work with the representative, as the publisher generally directs such requests back to him anyway. Since a curriculum materials li-

brary is a good place to display his latest textbooks, the representative will usually supply them as they become available.

Teachers on the staff of the college or laboratory school occasionally receive complimentary copies of textbooks, and these they can be encouraged to donate to the curriculum materials center. A letter should be sent to the publisher acknowledging these items and explaining how they came to the center, with an expression of thanks just as though they had been received direct.

Publishers' representatives have their books on display at educational meetings or book fairs several times during the year. The state education association convention, local education meetings, library conferences and college "book weeks" have publishers' exhibits. These afford an opportunity to see the newest items in print, check items that have become obsolete, and obtain the latest publishers' lists, and they offer an excellent opportunity for the publisher's representative and the curriculum materials librarian to become acquainted.

Although a textbook collection may be maintained by the library on an exhibit basis, nevertheless it must be administered along general lines of librarianship. A catalog listing the books is necessary so that patrons may know what is available and how it is arranged. The listing should include the main author (or the editor of a series if his name is a key one), the series title as well as titles of individual books in the series (if the titles are distinctive ones), plus simple but definitive subject headings.

The classification system should group the books on the shelves in the way best calculated to serve the patron. Classification by subject content usually is most satisfactory. Grouping by publisher, with a separate section for the books of each, is less desirable, as is grouping by grade level. Books, workbooks, and manuals can be classified together so that they will be adjacent on the shelves. As the manuals and workbooks that often accompany a textbook frequently are paperbacked, they can be placed flat or in pamphlet boxes at the end of the shelf on which the textbook is shelved.

A common problem is identification of the grade level of the book. This may be indicated on the book, or in the title, by a num-

ber, by symbols on the cover (stars, etc.), or by some indication on the title page, in the preface, or in the introduction. Since authors and publishers often attempt to obscure grade level from the children who will use the book, it frequently is difficult to find a clue on the book itself. A file of publishers' advertisements is helpful in answering such questions. The *American Educational Catalog* also is helpful.

In these matters pertaining to textbooks, it is well to work with the publishers' representatives on acquiring the latest editions, and it is especially important to consult them on discard of books. Unless the college's instructional program makes a comparative study of older textbooks with new, the collection will be made up of latest editions only. The publisher will generally indicate his desire to have superseded books physically destroyed when a new edition is sent. This is because the books are gifts which the publisher does not want in competition with his trade stock.

Courses of study, a second type of curriculum material, are the official guides prepared by a school system as an aid to teaching in a given subject or area of study for a given grade, combination of grades, or other designated class or instruction group. Actually, they often have a broader range than this and may include aims of a course, scope and nature of materials to be studied, suggestions as to suitable instructional aids, and a variety of contingent material.

Courses of study get heavy use in a curriculum materials center. College classes in curriculum making make use of not one but many courses of study for a given subject or grade. Students doing student teaching utilize them heavily as they encounter their first teaching experience. Teachers in the community or those attending summer session are devoted customers as they seek new ideas and as they evaluate their own teaching program.

Listings of courses of study are difficult to find. They are scattered and usually far from complete. Courses of study vary widely in quality, and available listings seldom give an evaluation. The *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* lists some, but it is not comprehensive. Some are listed in *School Life* and occasionally in other U. S. Office of Education publications. The *Education Index*

lists a number under various subject headings. State education association journals sometimes have listings. A board or department of education will occasionally make up a list of its own and distribute it as a price list, but this is not a general practice. Students or teachers may mention ones they have used or seen elsewhere.

Requests must be directed to school systems. Letters of inquiry must be sent out by the librarian who is trying to add courses of study to the curriculum materials center. Sometimes the school system does not distribute its courses. In other cases limited distribution is specified "to libraries and boards of education only," or "to select libraries," or "to superintendents." In other cases, materials may be readily available and lists furnished on request. Usually payment in advance is required.

Although the handling of courses of study poses some of the same problems as textbooks, it offers some that are different. A catalog listing the issuing agency (city, state, or other), the title of the course of study, and the grade level is needed. There should be entries under the issuing agency and the subject, but usually not by title, as the titles are not ordinarily distinctive.

In housing courses of study, grouping by publisher probably is not too important to the user of the collection. A classification by subject generally meets the need better. Since courses of study are usually paperbacked they may have to be placed flat-shell style. Alternatives are to place them in large pamphlet boxes or storage bins, or in vertical files. Here they can be filed by subject or by source if the collection is not a large one. It is advisable not to circulate them, due to the heavy use they receive.

Unlike textbooks, courses of study are not difficult to grade. Usually level is clearly indicated on the cover or in the title.

Weeding courses of study is not a clear-cut matter. They will become obsolete with age. If the curriculum materials center is a depository for some publishers, the librarian will be notified which items are superseded or no longer valid. Otherwise, the librarian must evaluate each one on its merits.

Units of work are similar to courses of study in form and the way they are handled, but they differ somewhat in scope and

emphasis. A unit of work is a subdivision of a course of study, a textbook, or a subject field, with activities and other learning experiences developed around a central purpose or problem. A unit can be part of a course of study in a subject such as the social studies, or it may cross subject lines (integrated unit) and tie together elements of several subjects. Such a unit might integrate the geography, history, music, language, and art of a foreign country.

Students in methods courses spend time studying units of work and devising new ones. Student teachers also use them, along with courses of study, in their teaching. Teachers, of course, are always looking for new ideas.

For the most part, units of work will come from the same sources as courses of study. A list from a city or state school system will include titles of both so that they may sometimes be difficult to distinguish without examining them. Units of work may be more difficult to obtain because they are less often listed. Although much literature is indicated in the *Education Index* under the heading "Units of Work," many of the articles are descriptive. Many more units of work are devised than courses of study but most of them do not find their way into print because the teacher has developed them for a specific classroom.

Units of work generally can be handled like courses of study. A unit-of-work catalog should list the center's holdings. The catalog listing should be more specific than for courses of study as the unit deals with a narrower area. Classification should be made so that they are grouped by subject, publisher, or grade level. Often the same classification system used for courses of study can be used for units of work. Grouping by subject is most desirable, although knowing grade level is more important with units of work than with courses of study. Level is usually indicated on the cover or title page. It is advisable not to circulate them because of the intensive use they receive. They must be weeded on an individual basis, taking into account age and possible instructions from the issuing agency.

Standardized tests are the fourth type that figures prominently among curriculum materials. They are tests for which content has



been selected and checked empirically, for which norms have been established, for which uniform methods of administering and scoring have been developed, and which may be scored with a relatively high degree of objectivity. They include all grade levels through college, as well as adult and general.

A file of tests gets wide and steady use. Courses in testing offered on the campus have students combing the file, examining and evaluating tests. Teachers go through the file to see what tests are new or to examine contents of tests on their subject. Professors make use of them for specialized needs.

Listings of tests are readily available. Test publishers regularly issue catalogs. They furnish advertisements of selected tests to professors, administrators, teachers, school personnel officials, and librarians. In selecting tests, recommendations by professors and personnel officers should be relied upon.

In developing a test file, the curriculum materials librarian should request specimen sets of the tests he wishes. Tests are made up in packets of 25 with a manual and a set of instructions. Test publishers make up specimen sets that include the set of instructions to accompany one copy of the first form of the test. These they distribute to interested persons. These are available at a cost usually well under one dollar.

If the test file is at all large there should be some system of classification. The catalog listing should be fairly detailed, giving the authors (usually multiple), title, and at least one subject heading. The contents of the specimen set should be noted on the card, including form, range, and time for administering. The copyright date of the test is important.

A vertical file is a good place to house tests. If the file is small, they can be kept in the manila envelopes in which they were received. If the file is large, each test can easily be stapled into a manila folder. A convenient device on the front of the envelope or folder is a paste-on copy of the catalog card information. The classification number can appear on the tab of the folder.

As a checklist for tests, the *Mental Measurements Yearbook* is excellent. There are also several useful periodicals on testing. A great deal of care should be used in weeding tests, as older ones have value for comparative study. They should not be discarded without the advice of the professor or personnel officer.

Also of value to a curriculum materials center are materials concerned with curriculum building. Books on curriculum making, testing, courses of study, and units of work are all helpful. Magazines, too, are excellent sources of information. Where possible, it is well to have these close at hand for students to use in conjunction with the materials. Whether they are placed in or adjacent to the center must be determined by library use, organization and policy. Books on curriculum generally are shelved in the book stacks, and the curriculum materials librarian should be acquainted with them and their location.

The librarian in charge of curriculum materials must be abreast of developments in the field, and he must have an acquaintance with the literature about it. Since curriculum materials have come to play such an important part in teacher preparation, the center that can offer good service from a unified collection will serve the teachers college community in a vital way.

By JOE W. KRAUS

## Teachers Colleges and the Education of School Librarians

MANY TEACHERS COLLEGE LIBRARIANS find themselves astride two horses, one named library administration, the other library education. The way to successful col-

lege library administration is reasonably well charted, but advice on the administration of undergraduate departments of school librarianship is scanty and often contradictory. The role of the teachers college in the preparation of public school teachers is now gen-

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erally acknowledged, despite challenges from some quarters, and is supported by regional accrediting agencies, by an active professional organization, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and by a creditable record of graduates teaching in public schools. However, the parallel task of preparing librarians for the public schools has received little encouragement from national library and educational associations. The teacher-education colleges which offer undergraduate instruction in school librarianship have been, for the most part, denied accreditation by the American Library Association, and generally treated with the embarrassed concern one gives to a poor relative who insists on appearing at the family reunion. This article attempts to state the case for the undergraduate department of library science in the teachers college by reviewing the development of undergraduate library science instruction in teacher-education institutions, by summarizing the status of library science departments in a selected group of teachers colleges, and by offering some recommendations for discussion and possible action. The point of view is that of an advocate, not a disinterested bystander.

#### BACKGROUND

Instruction in library science in teacher-education institutions is no innovation. As early as 1905 a committee of the National Education Association on instruction in library administration in normal schools proposed a series of ten lectures and twenty hours of practice work and reported that there was "every reason for offering this instruction in normal schools, and possibly even in high schools which are preparing their graduates to teach, and no reason for ignoring this [instruction]."<sup>1</sup> No statistics on the number of normal schools that followed this suggested outline are available, but the proceedings of the Library Department of the N. E. A. during the next few years contain many accounts of library instruction at various normal schools. In 1912, a committee on normal school libraries prepared a syllabus of courses for the normal school student, for the prospective teacher,

and for the potential school librarian, respectively, to provide some uniformity of instruction.<sup>2</sup>

A survey by the U. S. Bureau of Education in 1914 brought replies from 166 normal schools, 93 of which offered instruction in library science, ranging from a few lectures to a course covering a period of two years. Twenty-nine states were represented.<sup>3</sup> From a questionnaire sent to 125 teachers colleges and normal schools in 1919, Mary E. Robbins found that 85 offered some instruction in school librarianship, but few had definite courses for teacher-librarians. Miss Robbins found encouragement, however, in the programs offered by five colleges and four normal schools in Wisconsin, where the instruction was backed by a few other normal schools. The advantages of school library training in a normal school were highlighted, she believed, by an understanding of the educational system of a state and the opportunity for observation and practice in the laboratory schools usually operated by normal schools.<sup>4</sup>

Although the Williamson report<sup>5</sup> ignored the teacher-education institutions and concentrated on the fifteen library schools which later became the first accredited schools, instruction in teachers colleges continued to grow. In the second report of the Board of Education for Librarianship a sixteen-semester-hour program for teacher-librarians to be offered by normal schools, colleges, and universities was proposed as the minimum requirement. Courses in book selection, cataloging, children's literature, field work, library work with children, and teaching the use of the library in the school were specified.<sup>6</sup> No provision was made for the inspection of schools offering this curriculum or for accreditation by the Board of Education for Librarianship. For full-time school librarians, a thirty-semester-hour program in an accredited library school preceded by at least three years of college work was prescribed.

<sup>1</sup> National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1912, pp. 1258-62.

<sup>2</sup> Henry R. Evans, *Library Instruction in Universities, Colleges and Normal Schools* (Washington: U. S. Govt. Printing Office, 1914; U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1914, no. 34).

<sup>3</sup> Mary E. Robbins, "Training Teacher-Librarians in Normal Schools," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XIII (1919), 279-81.

<sup>4</sup> Charles C. Williamson, *Training for Library Service* (New York, 1923).

<sup>5</sup> American Library Association, Board of Education for Librarianship, *Second Annual Report* (Chicago: ALA, 1926), pp. 73-74.

<sup>6</sup> Elizabeth G. Baldwin, *Report of the Committee on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools* (Winona, Minn.: National Education Association, 1906), p. 9.

The Board expressed the hope that the "general adoption of requirements for special preparation will no doubt hasten a satisfactory recognition [of the status of school libraries]."<sup>7</sup>

This proved to be a forlorn hope. The pressure of demands from public schools for librarians and the lack of any supervision of library science departments offering less than full-fledged library school curricula led to a situation little better than before the issuance of the standards. Four years later the Board noted that "inadequate staff and a tendency to underrate the amount of instruction necessary are still problems" but believed that in numerous instances the minimum standards had aided teachers colleges to secure curricula and facilities more nearly equal to those of the library school.<sup>8</sup>

The rising unemployment of librarians during the economic depression of the 1930's forced the ALA to take a stronger position by discouraging any increase in non-accredited library science curricula and urging the accredited library schools to limit enrollment by scrutinizing the qualifications of applicants more carefully. In 1935 the Board of Education for Librarianship reported that the most serious immediate problem was the training agencies other than library schools. More than one hundred institutions in thirty-three states were offering courses in school library service of less than library school caliber.<sup>9</sup>

A tripartite solution to the problem of education of school librarians was attempted in 1935-36 with the adoption of a new set of minimum standards for teacher-librarian training agencies<sup>10</sup> by the American Library Association in December, 1934, supplemented by Lucille F. Fargo's book, *Preparation for School Library Work*,<sup>11</sup> and by the report of a joint committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association on *How Shall We Educate Teachers and Librarians for Library Service in the School?*<sup>12</sup> Compared with pre-

vious attempts at helping the teachers colleges to achieve a distinctive niche in the library education scheme, this was a Herculean labor. In the new standards, the Board of Education for Librarianship outlined a set of guiding principles which a college could adapt to the requirements of the institution's academic policies. Fargo's book suggested a curriculum for teachers and teacher-librarians in which teacher-training institutions might integrate what had been considered disparate functions into a program for the preparation of library-oriented teachers and teacher-librarians. The Joint Committee proposed a syllabus of sixteen semester hours for teacher-librarians, including the following courses: how to use the library, reading guidance, organization and administration of the small school library, the school library as an information center, and observation and field work. Full-time school librarians were expected to receive their professional education in accredited library schools.

A report on field studies of thirty-three teacher-training institutions by the Board of Education for Librarianship in 1935-36 recommended that the number of training agencies be limited, that enrollment in undergraduate library science courses be limited to the maximum number of teacher-librarians justified by actual demand, that courses for teacher librarians be developed to meet the needs of practicing school librarians rather than copied from traditional library school courses, and that teacher-training institutions provide library instruction for college students and school administrators as well as for teacher-librarians for the smaller schools.<sup>13</sup>

Although prospects for some standardization of undergraduate departments of library science seemed to be highly favorable, the decision of the Board of Education for Librarianship to use the minimum standards for advisory rather than accrediting purposes diluted the strength of their recommendations. The American Association of Teachers Colleges, too, received the report of the joint committee but took no steps to implement its recommendations. Teachers colleges now found themselves urged to extend library science courses to provide librarians as well

<sup>7</sup> ALA Board of Education for Librarianship, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

<sup>8</sup> *ALA Bulletin*, XXIV (1930), 176.

<sup>9</sup> *ALA Bulletin*, XXX (1936), 318.

<sup>10</sup> ALA Board of Education for Librarianship, "Minimum Requirements for Teacher-Librarian Training Agencies," *ALA Bulletin*, XXIX (1935), 87-90.

<sup>11</sup> Lucille F. Fargo, *Preparation for School Library Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936).

<sup>12</sup> New York: Columbia University Press, 1936.

<sup>13</sup> American Library Association, *The Preparation of Teacher-Librarians* (Chicago: ALA, 1937).

as teachers for the public schools, yet no national accrediting agency was willing to endorse their efforts.

Debate on the place of the teachers college continued to hold considerable interest. Mable Harris<sup>14</sup> and Charles V. Park<sup>15</sup> urged that the colleges extend their work in library science while Esther Stallman<sup>16</sup> and Earl U. Rugg<sup>17</sup> held that teachers colleges should limit their efforts to preparing teachers to use the library more effectively in their teaching. Others believed that teacher-librarians for the small schools might well receive their training in teachers colleges but that such work should not be confused with the professional training of the accredited library school.<sup>18</sup>

The standards established by the regional accrediting agencies and state departments of education attempted to fill the void left by the failure of national bodies to take positive action. State departments of education in general require a minimum number of credits in library science (the range is from six to thirty semester hours) and they do not distinguish between colleges that are accredited by the American Library Association and those that are not.<sup>19</sup>

Postwar developments in library education have been unsettled, to put it mildly, and marked by renewed studies of education for school librarianship, a general revamping of the curricula of the accredited library schools, and a mild revolution among accrediting agencies; but an optimist can see prospects for closer cooperation between undergraduate and graduate instruction in library science, if a more carefully defined picture of the place of the undergraduate programs can be drawn.

In 1946 the Third Southern Library Planning Conference on training for school librarianship prepared a detailed outline for undergraduate curricula of twelve, eighteen, and thirty semester hours respectively to pre-

pare librarians for service in schools of varying sizes. This syllabus has been adopted widely in teachers colleges of the southern states, but here again the regional accrediting agency failed to implement the recommendations.

The time-honored assumption that teacher-librarians require less library education than full-time school librarians was challenged by Ruth Ersted with the forthright statement that "the dichotomy of training for teacher-librarians and professional librarians should be discontinued."<sup>20</sup> Most of the certification requirements of the state departments of education, however, still differentiate between the education required for two types of service.

The desirability of introducing library science as an undergraduate subject was accepted by the accredited library schools, although not without much soul-searching, and in 1951 the American Library Association adopted a new set of standards for a five-year program which would culminate in a master's degree, with the recommendation "that undergraduate programs offered at other institutions shall be accepted by a library school in so far as they contribute to the objectives of the five-year program."<sup>21</sup>

The initiation of an intervisitation program by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in 1951 led to the realization that no standards for undergraduate departments of library science existed, except for the now obsolete statement of 1934. A set of tentative standards was prepared by the Board of Education for Librarianship and approved for use by the AACTE to supplement the association's general standards. These standards were based upon the following assumptions: (1) that the undergraduate curriculum in library science should be not less than fifteen nor more than eighteen semester hours in length; (2) that there should be articulation between the undergraduate programs and the graduate library school programs in the same area; (3) that in-service training for school librarians should be available; (4) that the basic curriculum should be the same for part-time and

<sup>14</sup> "The Responsibility of the Teachers College in the Training of School Librarians," *Library Journal*, LXIII (1938), 259-61.

<sup>15</sup> American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Nineteenth Yearbook*, 1949, pp. 99-104.

<sup>16</sup> "How Shall We Meet the Challenge Presented by the Increasing Need for the Training of School Librarians?" *Library Journal*, LXIII (1938), 261-65.

<sup>17</sup> American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Nineteenth Yearbook*, 1949, pp. 104-10.

<sup>18</sup> *ALA Bulletin*, XXXIII (1939), 82.

<sup>19</sup> Mildred L. Nickel, "Standards and Certification," *Library Trends*, I (1953), 343-56; Frances L. Spain, "The Application of School Library Standards," National Society for the Study of Education, *Forty-Seventh Yearbook*, Part II (1943), pp. 269-92.

<sup>20</sup> "Education for Library Service to Children and Youth," in *Education for Librarianship: Papers Presented at the Library Conference, University of Chicago, August 16-21, 1948*, (Chicago: ALA, 1949), p. 139.

<sup>21</sup> *ALA Bulletin*, XLV (1951), 217.

full-time librarians; and (5) that no instruction be given by correspondence. Evaluative criteria based on these assumptions were used by AACTE institutions in their intervisitation program.

The question of what agency should serve as an accrediting agency for undergraduate library science offerings is still unanswered, and has been confused by postwar skirmishes in the accrediting field. A National Commission on Accrediting, established in 1950 by seven major educational associations in an effort to stop overlapping services and requirements of the numerous professional accrediting organizations, requested a moratorium on accrediting by these organizations for 1951-52. The American Library Association and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education complied with this request and the former began to work on plans for cooperative accrediting procedures to be carried on eventually with the regional accrediting agencies. A "cease and desist order" was issued by the National Commission in November, 1952, to eliminate all accrediting activities of the ALA and the AACTE and to transfer this responsibility to the regional accrediting agencies by January, 1954. Sober thought prevailed, however, and the order was modified to permit the ALA to continue its accrediting under the general supervision of the National Commission to allow more time for the development of cooperative procedures with the regional groups. The AACTE relinquished its accrediting function to a new organization, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, on July 1, 1954.

At present, the teachers colleges that offer undergraduate courses in library science have a set of minimum standards prepared by a Board of Education for Librarianship which does not offer accreditation to them; they are inspected by a visiting committee of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education which is no longer an accrediting agency; and they are urged to provide school librarians for their region by public school superintendents who need many more librarians than the accredited library schools can hope to supply.

#### THE PRESENT SCENE

To learn more about the library science courses offered by teachers colleges, the fol-

lowing data have been gleaned from the catalogs of the 284 member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The membership of the AACTE, a national organization of teachers colleges of education in multi-college institutions was chosen as a workable sample of teacher-education colleges. The twenty-two AACTE institutions which have schools or departments of library science accredited by the Board of Education for Librarianship were not included in this summary, nor were colleges which offer only courses in the use of the library. This is obviously not a study of all undergraduate library science instruction<sup>22</sup> nor of undergraduate library science instruction offered by all teachers colleges.

Fifty-one per cent (145) of the colleges in the AACTE offer some undergraduate instruction in library science. The programs range from a single two- or three-semester-hour course in library organization to a 36-semester-hour curriculum. Nearly one-fourth (36) offer at least 24 semester hours; half (85) of these schools offer 18 semester hours or more; four-fifths (116) offer 12 semester hours or more. We cannot be certain of the number of students enrolled in these courses, but we can surmise that the courses are active ones because a comparison of 132 catalogs of four years ago with the current ones of the same institutions shows that only three of these colleges have dropped library science from their course offerings while many schools have added library science courses during that time. Nine of the AACTE institutions indicate that library science courses are offered "on demand" or in summer sessions only. The colleges offering undergraduate library science instruction are located in thirty-nine states in all sections of the country. Proximity to an accredited library school appears to be no deterrent to the development of library science curricula by teachers colleges. Six colleges offer such curricula in Illinois, ten in Wisconsin, seven in Minnesota, eight in Texas, five in Michigan, and six in Tennessee.

Within the colleges, library science rates a listing as a department in most (117) of the

<sup>22</sup> At present 579 institutions offer instruction in library science according to a preliminary study by the U. S. Office of Education of the catalogs of the colleges listed in its *Educational Directory, 1954-55*. (Letter dated December 11, 1955, from Willard O. Mishoff, specialist for college and research libraries, U. S. Office of Education.)

colleges, although in twenty catalogs library science is listed in the education department, in six schools the English department (or department of languages) is the host, and one college has an interesting combination department of special services (geography and library science). In multi-college institutions library science is a department of the college of education except in two colleges where the college of arts and sciences assumes the administrative responsibility and in one in which library science is offered in the evening college.

One-fifth (33) of the colleges offer a major in library science and nearly 50 per cent (71) offer a minor but there is considerable variation in the number of courses required for a major or minor. A major may consist of as few as twenty-four semester hours or as many as thirty-eight, although the former requirement prevails in eleven of the twenty-eight colleges offering a major. An eighteen-semester-hour sequence is the typical requirement for a minor although the range is from eleven and one-fourth to twenty-seven semester hours. Half (74) of the AACIE schools offer enough library science elective courses to meet the requirements of regional or state accrediting agencies but have no provision for majors or minors.

The usual pattern of courses required or recommended to the prospective school librarian in these college catalogs includes a course in book selection, or books and related materials for children and young people, or children's literature (in the order of the frequency of occurrence in the catalogs); a course in school library administration and the organization of materials, or functions of the school library; a course in reference, or the library as an information center; and a course in cataloging and classification, or technical processes. Courses in supervised library practice and in audio-visual materials, or non-book materials, are a little less likely to be required or recommended. Separate courses in reading guidance, history of printing or history of libraries, teaching the use of libraries, and book binding and repair are required much less frequently. The course in children's literature may be taught by the English or education departments and the audio-visual course is in most instances offered either by the education department or by a department of audio-visual instruction.

One should not assume, however, that all courses listed in these catalogs can be placed in these neat categories. There are a number of courses, bearing various names, which attempt to relate the library to the school and the community, some which aim to give the student an orientation to various types of libraries and a few which deal with special types of materials. In general, there is more emphasis on books than on techniques, more on the use of the library than on the preservation of collections, and more on the relation of the library to the classroom than on the library as a self-contained unit.

The courses required in subjects other than library science are too varied to be summarized here, but in general some specialization is required in a second subject in addition to the courses in professional education required by the state certifying agency for teachers and librarians and the courses required for the students' general education. Most library science courses are offered in the last two years of college, some in the sophomore year and a very few in the freshman year.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Debate over whether or not teachers colleges should offer courses for school librarians, once a question for spirited discussion, now seems pointless. Professional library science courses are being offered in teachers colleges in increasing numbers and one would be foolhardy indeed to suggest that these courses be abolished. School officials will continue to turn to the teachers colleges for school librarians as well as for teachers of all subjects and the tax-supported colleges cannot ignore these requests.<sup>23</sup> Our energies might better be addressed to the question of how these courses can be strengthened and made a vital part of library education.

Teachers colleges can serve a useful purpose in the preparation of school librarians by offering library science curricula providing the basic information about books for children and adolescents, the principles of

<sup>23</sup> No nation-wide statistics are available on the number of school librarians who received their education in non-accredited library science programs, but in Virginia 27% of 479 (57 per cent) school librarians received their library education in programs not accredited by the American Library Association. One-half of the school librarians in Virginia received their library education in teachers colleges. (Data supplied by Office of School Libraries and Textbooks, State Department of Education.)

organization and administration of school libraries, the reference sources appropriate for elementary and secondary schools, simplified cataloging and classification, audio-visual materials, and supervised school library service. At the same time, the library science offerings should encroach as little as possible on the general education of the student. On the basis of the limited data available the curriculum should be between eighteen and twenty-four semester hours in length, but the availability of graduate library schools and other local conditions should govern the course offerings.

The standards prepared for the AACTE will be helpful to teachers colleges in assessing their library education programs but one must remember that these standards are tentative and that they need further study and revision in the light of the experience of the AACTE in using them during its four-year intervisitation program. The standards are more likely to be revised effectively if the American Library Association will make certain that the data collected by the AACTE are not filed away and forgotten.

As soon as satisfactory standards can be developed, some form of accreditation must be given to the departments of library science that meet these standards. Inspection of these schools is obviously beyond the capacity of the present Board of Education for Librarianship, but the regional accrediting agencies could evaluate departments of library science as part of their evaluation of the institution with the assistance of representatives of an enlarged advisory body of the BEL. The professional advice would then come from the national professional organization but responsibility for enforcement would rest with the region, where it logically belongs.

## Consultants on Reprinting

The ALA Committee on Reprinting, in an effort to obtain valid and reliable information concerning the advisability of reprinting titles in various fields of interest, has voted to establish three panels as follows: (1) representative librarians for testing books of general interest, (2) librarians representing special subject fields, (3) librarians and other persons representing major library associa-

Teachers colleges can perform a unique service to school librarianship by adapting their courses to meet the specific needs of their regions, by relating their instruction to the curricular trends of their state, and by encouraging their strongest graduates to continue their studies in a graduate library school. Effective cooperation between the classroom teacher and the school librarian must be based on an understanding of the problems of the teacher, a knowledge of the best practices of successful teachers, and an awareness of the high potential in public education. Sharing a common undergraduate career should help school librarians to become colleagues of the classroom teacher in fact as well as on school organizational charts.

Despite the recommendation of the Board of Education for Librarianship that "there should be articulation between the undergraduate programs and the graduate library school programs in the same area" the fact remains that little has been done to encourage such cooperation. The cooperative programs of the state colleges and the University of Oklahoma and of Rutgers University and the New Jersey State Teachers College at Trenton are interesting exceptions. There is no good reason why undergraduate study at a teachers college could not satisfy the prerequisites for admission to a graduate library school. It may well be that one of the most effective devices for recruiting lies in this untapped field. Certainly both the graduate schools and the undergraduate departments could gain much from an exchange of ideas, of students, and of mutual esteem. Perhaps the first necessary step toward building an effective plan of education for librarianship for all should be a recognition of the value of both types of library education.

tions and organizations. All of these representatives will act as consultants for the general Committee on Reprinting. Robert E. Thomason, supervising bibliographer, University of North Carolina Library, is consultant to the committee and official representative for the Association of College and Reference Libraries. Any suggestions of titles for reprinting should be sent to him.



## Universal Guide to Catalogs of Manuscripts and Inventories of Archival Collections: A Proposal for Cooperative Listing<sup>1</sup>

IN THIS DAY, when the specialist (to cite the popular saw) ever strives to learn more and more about less and less, and when the documentalist seeks to magnify the light of information upon topics of, perhaps, minuscule size, and when, above all, emphasis is upon the contemporary, it may appear anachronistic to propose, or even to contemplate proposing, control of one aspect of the macrocosm. Yet history, seeking and knowing, is universal and dependent upon documentation.

Certainly there can be no doubt that control of sources is a prime objective in any scheme for exploitation of sources. Therefore, I suggest for consideration the listing of all useful bibliographical controls, whether published or unpublished, such as guides, calendars, catalogs, inventories and indexes for the collections of manuscripts and for the archival *fonds* in public, semi-public, and significant private institutions throughout the world.

This proposal, as is self-evident, is concerned with two separate categories of documentation, manuscripts and archives, which in the implementation of any resultant project would require separate listing and which, therefore, will require separate attention in the devel-

opment of the proposal. Except in the Americas, the term "manuscript" regularly is reserved for books in manuscript, whereas in this Western Hemisphere it embraces correspondence, personal papers, journals, and similar private records. Archives, on the other hand, are the organic and organized records of an entity. In deference to long established custom in Europe and other parts of the world I shall discuss under "manuscripts" only the first type and include the New World type among "archives." Librarians will not need to be reminded that libraries not infrequently possess separate documents which are archival in nature, nor archivists that archival repositories frequently possess items, especially among their museum pieces, such as are often found in libraries.

### HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Like many another "new" idea, the present proposal does not lack precedent. Modern attempts at an international listing of manuscripts are spread over the last 200 years. Although the universal listing of archives has appeared to some to be a task too gigantic for realization, nevertheless partial listings, usually for a specific purpose, have appeared within the past 75 years. The story, which provides a background essential to the understanding and evaluation of this newest version, is not without independent interest as historical documentation.

<sup>1</sup>The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and they do not necessarily represent the views of any organization or agency.

*Dr. Born is secretary general, International Council on Archives.*

## Manuscripts

The first modern attempt at a universal listing of manuscripts was that of Bernard de Monfaucon who published his *Bibliotheca Bibliothecarum Manuscriptorum Nova* in two folio volumes, each containing about 1,000 pages, at Paris in 1739. One century later, Gustav Haenel brought out his more modest effort entitled *Catalogi Librorum Manuscriptorum* in one quarto volume of 1,200-odd columns, which he published at Leipzig in 1830. It covered the libraries of France, Switzerland, Belgium (that is, modern Belgium-Netherlands), Great Britain, Spain and Portugal. The third (and the last to be achieved) of these great pioneer efforts is the *Dictionnaire des manuscrits, ou recueil de catalogues de manuscrits existants dans les principales bibliothèques d'Europe, concernant plus particulièrement les matières ecclésiastiques et historiques*, attributed to Mas Latrie, which Migne included in his *Nouvelle Encyclopédie Théologique* and published at Paris (1853) in two volumes.

Different in nature and in purpose, albeit international if not universal in scope, are several more recent undertakings which are cited as examples illustrative of a type. Gustav Becker's *Catalogi Bibliothecarum Antiqui* (1885), a compilation largely from earlier fragmentary studies, lists those catalogs made before 1500. Wilhelm Weinberger contributed to this genre a number of titles; e.g., *Catalogus Catalogorum: Verzeichnis der Bibliotheken die ältere Handschriften lateinischer Kirchenschriftsteller enthalten* (1902 and 1908), *Beiträge zur Handschriftenkunde* (1908 and 1909), and *Wegweiser durch die Sammlungen altphilologischer Handschriften* (1930). The last two were published in the *Sitzungsberichte der K. Akad. der Wissenschaften* at Vienna. Paul Lehmann produced the only two volumes which appeared (1918 and 1928) in the series *Mittelalterliche Bibliothekskata-*

*loge Deutschlands und der Schweiz*, and Max Manitius had published posthumously his *Handschriften antiker Autoren in mittelalterlichen Bibliothekskatalogen* (1935).

Examples of three more special types of international catalog—manuscripts (including archives) of diverse provenance and ownership which relate to a national history, manuscripts (including archives) of a national provenance now found in diverse localities, manuscripts of diverse provenance and ownership containing the works of a particular author—are: David M. Matteson, *List of Manuscripts Concerning American History Preserved in European Libraries and Noted in Their Published Catalogues and Similar Printed Lists* (1925); Rubén Vargas Ugarte, *Manuscritos Peruanos en las Bibliotecas del Extranjero* (1935- ); M.L.W. Laistner, *A Hand-List of Bede Manuscripts* (1913).<sup>2</sup>

The most recent scheme for extensive cataloging of which I have heard is that advanced by the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique at Paris in 1952 for listing manuscripts written in Roman characters between the ninth and sixteenth centuries.<sup>3</sup> Some aspects of the plan, such as the centralized card file and the file of microfilm copies of texts maintained at national centers, are not too different from the project of the International Association of Music Libraries which plans to establish a centralized collection of negative microfilm copies of music manuscripts from which positive copies may be purchased on demand.<sup>4</sup>

The most recent proposal for a gen-

<sup>2</sup> Somewhat analogous to the various cataloging efforts are those for listing incipits. See, for example, Lynn Thorndike and Pearl Kibre, *A Catalogue of Incipits of Medieval Scientific Writings in Latin* (1927); Auguste Feller, "Repertoire d'incipit pour la littérature latine philosophique et théologique du moyen âge," *Revue d'Histoire Ecclésiastique*, XLIII (1948), 493-512.

<sup>3</sup> "Un catalogue internationale dei manoscritti latini," *Accademia e Biblioteca d'Italia*, XXI (1953), 39-40.

<sup>4</sup> "Preliminary Draft of a Proposal for an International Microfilm Archive of Music Manuscripts" (n.d., 8 p. processed). This statement is signed by Richard S. Hill, president, International Association of Music Libraries.

eral world catalog however of which I am aware is that by the late Seymour de Ricci, distinguished paleographer and *amateur de manuscrits*, which he prepared at the request of Dr. Waldo G. Leland, then director of the American Council of Learned Societies. In his "Proposals for a Bibliography of Catalogues of Manuscripts" (2 p., mimeographed), dated at Paris in June 1939, M. de Ricci remarked: "Strange to say, considering the importance of manuscript evidence in almost every branch of culture, there is not in existence a reliable handbook containing a list of the known collections of manuscripts, with some kind of a bibliography of the catalogues in which they are described."

Dr. Leland, in the letter of transmittal by which he brought the proposal to the attention of the executive council of the ACLS, said:

The need of such a guide, which would give comparable information for all important depositories, is obvious. A mere bibliography of the titles of published catalogues is not sufficient, for that does not give the scholar who proposes to work in a given depository any adequate idea of the collections that are to be found there, nor of the extent to which they have been satisfactorily catalogued. It is my own opinion, based upon considerable experience in research in manuscript collections, that the user of such materials needs, as a sort of first aid, a general *aperçu* of the collections in any given depository, accompanied by a bibliography of the *useful* printed or unprinted catalogues of which he can avail himself.

Just ten years earlier M. de Ricci had repeated at the First World Congress of Libraries and Bibliography held at Rome his proposal entitled "Projet d'une 'Bibliotheca Manuscriptorum Nova': Catalogue mondial des manuscrits des bibliothèques publiques"<sup>6</sup> which he had presented originally in a communication to the Académie des In-

scriptions et Belles-Lettres at Paris in August 1927. His plan for describing the estimated one million manuscripts (codices) in 20 volumes of 1,000 pages each, arranged by libraries and publishable in fascicles, was the object of a counter-proposal, "On the Possibility to Realize the Plan of a 'Bibliotheca Manuscriptorum Nova'"<sup>7</sup> by Mr. Zdenek v. Tobolka, who proposed a central card file in which would be accumulated all entries relating to a writer. Neither proposal appears to have become the object of a resolution at the congress, and therefore neither advanced from the stage of proposal to that of project.

In 1923 the American Library Association established its Committee on Bibliography which had as one of its objectives "the promotion of a project for a union catalog of world manuscripts, a tool more and more urgently demanded by American research scholars."<sup>8</sup> This committee labored for more than ten years, accomplished more than proponents who had immediately preceded it, but nevertheless fell short of its goal even as others had done. The frustration is apparent from the brief passage quoted herewith:

In October, 1933, the ALA Board having decided that it could not solicit for the project, it seemed idle to spend more time and money elaborating preparations and it was decided to publish the rough material gathered in the way of a survey, a union catalog of catalogs and studies in method, publishing as *manuscript* without pretending to complete or edit beyond the point reached automatically in compiling. . . . This survey does not include all national lists by any means, or even all universal sources. . . . The total number of collections, public or private, large or small, mentioned somewhere in print, is two or three times the number given in the standard lists.<sup>9</sup>

The tangible products of the com-

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, II: 351-357.

<sup>7</sup> *The World's Collections of Manuscript Books: A Preliminary Survey* (1928), p. v.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. vii.

<sup>9</sup> *Atté*, II: 345-350.

mittee, in addition to the volume from which the quotations have been taken, are four: Ernest C. Richardson's *Summary of Method* (1937); Henry A. Grubbs' *The Manuscript Book Collections of Spain and Portugal* (1933, 1935); Nabil A. Faris' *A Demonstration Experiment with Oriental Manuscripts* (1934); and Dr. Richardson's *A List of Printed Catalogs of Manuscript Books* (1935). In the first work, Dr. Richardson, chairman of the committee, cites the plan to catalog the world's western manuscripts in three years, at an annual cost of \$25,000, which the American Philological Association fruitlessly proposed to the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and he describes at length his own 30-year struggle to establish and implement a project for a world catalog.

Before passing on to the discussion of archives I should mention several other references which provide, in varying degree and by greatly varying methods, an international guide to catalogs of catalogs. In 1933 the Département des Manuscrits of the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris brought out the fourth edition of its *Catalogue alphabétique des livres imprimés mis à la disposition des lecteurs dans la Salle de Travail* which contains many of the titles basic to world-wide research. In 1937 Enrique Sparrn of Argentina published *Las Bibliotecas con Quinientos y mas Manuscritos del Viejo Mundo* in which he lists, among many other items, a large number of published catalogs. He also points out, in passing, the difficulties which result from the use of the Americas of the word "manuscript" to include not only codices but also documents, acts, autographs.

In 1948 Professor Paul O. Kristeller of Columbia University published his "Latin Manuscript Books Before 1600: A Bibliography of the Printed Catalogues of Extant Collections"<sup>9</sup> in which he as-

sembled general works giving primarily bibliographical or statistical information about manuscript collections, catalogs (many of which he has analyzed) covering collections in more than one library, and catalogs of individual libraries. "On the whole," he says in his introduction, "cataloguing of the manuscript collections has been completed in France, and carried very far in Great Britain, Belgium, and a few other countries. Large gaps still exist not only for Spain but also for Italy and Germany. The ultimate goal, of course, is to describe in print all extant collections. Meanwhile, all handwritten catalogues available on the spot in the various libraries should be microfilmed as soon as possible." An appreciable aid to this end is provided by the author himself who five years later published a second bibliography which he entitled "A Tentative List of Unpublished Inventories of Imperfectly Catalogued Extant Collections."<sup>10</sup>

### Archives

In the last decades of the nineteenth and in the first of the twentieth century several works appeared which, although written for a specific purpose or from a special point of view, provide partial international coverage: Herman Osterley, *Wegweiser durch die Literatur der Urkundensammlungen* (1885-86), volume two of which deals with non-German institutions; Carl A. H. Burkhardt, *Hand- und Addressbuch der deutschen Archive* (1887) which describes collections in German-language areas as well as in Germany; Charles V. Langlois and Henri Stein, *Les archives de l'histoire de France* (1891-93), part two of which describes collections in archives outside France, and part three of which describes materials in manuscript libraries both within and without France; Gustav Wolf, *Einfuehrung in das Studium der*

<sup>9</sup> *Traditio*, VI (1948), 227-317.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, IX (1953), 293-418. The 500 titles were located in some 20 countries.

*neueren Geschichte* (1910), pages 665-729 of which, entitled "Das Archivwesen," enumerate quantities of inventories among other titles.

At the International Congress of Archivists and Librarians held at Brussels in 1910, M. Hubert Nclis of the Archives Générales du Royaume in Belgium presented a paper entitled "Les publications des administrations d'archives"<sup>11</sup> in which he pointed out the lamentable nonexistence of local and national inventories and guides, not to mention an international list of such controls. Although his resolution calling for such a general bibliography of all publications of archival repositories was adopted by the section devoted to the question and ratified by the General Assembly at its closing session, nothing more concrete appears to have occurred as a direct result.

In 1953, at the Second International Congress of Archivists convened by the International Council on Archives, the Society of American Archivists presented a resolution that "the ICA study the feasibility of compiling a selected, annotated, universal bibliography on archival administration"<sup>12</sup> which, presumably, would contain titles of national lists. The same group likewise proposed that the ICA study the feasibility of compiling a universal guide to the records of international government-sponsored conferences and the records of nongovernmental international conferences sponsored by non-continuing bodies.<sup>13</sup> Although both resolutions were adopted no report of action has been received.

The years intervening between 1910 and 1953 saw the publication of such general references as *Minerva-Handbücher: Die Archive* (1932) which lists data on archives in twelve countries of Europe; Hans Nabholz and Paul Kläui,

*Internationaler Archivführer* (1936), which complements the *Guide international des archives: Europe* (1934) which had been prepared by the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation; such delimited references as those prepared by Roscoe R. Hill, *The National Archives of Latin America* (1945) and *American Missions in European Archives* (1951); and such diverse but particularized items as the guides to the materials for American history prepared by various scholars for various countries—e.g., Carl R. Fish, *Guide to the Materials for American History in Roman and Other Italian Archives* (1911) and the *Tentative List of Jewish Cultural Treasures in Axis-occupied Countries* (1946) which was prepared and published by the Commission on European Jewish Cultural Reconstruction.

Under the sponsorship of the ICA, M. Robert-Henri Bautier published in 1953 his "Bibliographie sélective des guides d'archives"<sup>14</sup> which supplements and extends in coverage the *Guide international*. The ICA, which has been studying since 1951 the problems inherent in revising the *Guide* and in extending it to world coverage, in the fall of 1952 addressed a preliminary questionnaire to national archives and associations of archivists. No report has been published. In that same year the Library of Congress issued a 25-page list of *Unpublished Bibliographical Tools in Certain Archives and Libraries of Europe*, a sampling from some 100 institutions in eight countries, which was intended as a stimulant to others to carry on by listing and by microfilming the actual finding aids.<sup>15</sup>

#### PROPOSAL—PROJECT

The conversion of the proposal into a project involves consideration of at

<sup>11</sup> *Journal of Documentation*, IX (1953), 1-41.

<sup>12</sup> *Congrès international des archivistes et des bibliothécaires*, Brussels, 1910. *Actes*, (Brussels, 1912), pp. 144-150.

<sup>13</sup> *American Archivist*, XVI (1953), 375.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>15</sup> Presumably such a program demands *a priori* a knowledge of what exists.

least six items: (a) estimates of quantities of materials, (b) method of operation, (c) dissemination of results, (d) time schedule, (e) costs, (f) sources of funds. Here, however, I shall limit myself mainly to a discussion of the first three topics.

### *Quantity of Materials*

It is extremely difficult to estimate the number of catalogs of manuscripts or the number of guides and inventories for archival *fonds* and collections of personal papers. In 1939 M. de Ricci estimated that there were approximately one million extant manuscripts (codices written prior to 1500); and that 200,000 were housed at the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale, another 100,000 at the Bodleian and the Vatican, and the remaining 700,000 scattered among a very large number of libraries. How many catalogs result from this? How many result from the addition of "modern" manuscripts such as correspondence, personal papers, music scores, literary texts and the like? How many guides and inventories are there for the archival *fonds* housed in thousands of archival depositories? And what of the Near East and Asia which most persons have not included in their calculations?

The British Museum's *The Catalogues of the Manuscript Collections* (1951) and *The Catalogues of the Oriental Printed Books and Manuscripts* (1951) together list about 200 catalogs of manuscripts, one of which, "The Class Catalogue," is composed of 106 volumes. At an estimated 20 titles per page, Richardson's *A List of Printed Catalogs of Manuscript Books*, which covers the world, contains approximately 7,000 titles of catalogs. The *État des Inventaires des Archives Nationales, Départementales, Communales et Hospitalières* in France as of January 1937 lists nearly 900 inventories and indexes, both printed and manuscript, at the Archives

Nationales in Paris and an estimated 5,000 for the other institutions. The *Guide international* lists for four countries (France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands) some 300 items by title; refers generally to certain periodicals and series; and, in the case of France, mentions the existence of 500 inventories in the archives of departments.<sup>16</sup>

My estimate of quantity presumes, for manuscripts, that (a) Richardson's list is as complete as the compiler believed it to be, (b) additional catalogs have been printed, (c) still other catalogs remain in manuscript, (d) not all catalogs will be worth listing; and, for archival *fonds* and collections of personal papers, that (a) most lists are very incomplete, (b) additional finding aids have been printed, (c) many finding aids are constantly being prepared, (d) the general lack of guides, or comprehensive lists, requires enumeration of countless specific inventories, (e) not all finding aids will be worth listing, (f) not all types of finding aids can be listed regardless of quality. For manuscripts (codices), therefore, I estimate the number of catalogs which will require listing to be 30,000; for archival *fonds* and collections of personal papers, with even greater hesitancy, I estimate the number to be 100,000.

### *Method of Operation*

Clearly the first step in actual operations would be enumeration of all ascertainable printed catalogs and similar works. This postulates access to extensive reference collections rich in bibliographical tools. From this it follows that the project could best be conducted from such locales as London, Paris, Rome, Washington. At the last named full use could be made of the work which Dr. Richardson was obliged to leave unfinished. Under the direction of a general editor and two assistant edi-

<sup>16</sup>The *Minerva Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt* (1937) lists approximately 1,700 archival repositories throughout the world.



tors (one for manuscripts, one for archives) a clerical staff with some competence in languages could extract titles on cards, revise from source if necessary, and file the cards alphabetically by author under general works and under specific works, arranging the latter under country, city, institution. Under the general direction of the central office, national agencies such as the national library, the academy of letters, or a professional society in each country could be asked to procure and transmit to the central office all titles of pertinent unprinted catalogs and similar works. The cards for these would be integrated into the central file.

No one, I am sure, will be misled by the apparent simplicity of the scheme. The value of an international guide to finding aids has appeared obvious to many, but it may not appear obvious to many others: those who will want access to knowledge of collections in their custody to remain dependent upon a visit to their institution; those who will object to the foreseeable consequence of listing, namely requests for photographic reproduction of the (perhaps) imperfect finding aids in their possession; those who regard their collections as a private preserve. Even from countries in which there is a centralized authority over archives and libraries delays must be anticipated. Even the minutiae of bibliographical form will bedevil the editors and may lead to the pursuit of ghosts or the establishment of double entries for single entities.<sup>17</sup>

### Dissemination

An international clearing house of information, which is what the central office would become *ad interim*, has definite limitations upon its usefulness even in a world connected by air mail routes. Therefore, the logical end product of any project should be publication. This, obviously, must be in two series (archives, manuscripts) and I sug-

gest for consideration that it be accomplished by fascicles restricted to a single country or area. Fascicles are recommended, in spite of certain negative characteristics, because their use would permit publication of readied material without delay caused by incomplete reports from countries which take alphabetical precedence, and because they would permit wider distribution of national lists among institutions which might not want an entire volume or series.

If the managers of the project would sacrifice esthetics to economics, they could achieve publication of the *Universal Guide* at a very reasonable cost. I suggest that the materials be typed upon cards which can be mounted on a board, photographed, and printed by photo-offset in reduced size.<sup>18</sup> On pages 9" x 11½", arranged in three columns, 50 titles (at an average of 6 lines each) could be reproduced neatly and legibly on each page. On the basis of the estimated 30,000 titles for catalogs of manuscripts this scheme would result in 600

<sup>17</sup> M. de Ricci appended to his 1939 proposal, as an example of form, the materials (5 p. mimeographed) which he had at hand for the Biblioteca Nazionale at Florence. A comparison of this list with the titles listed by the Bibliothèque Nationale (1933), Richardson (1935), G. Gabrieli (*Notizie statistiche, storiche, bibliografiche delle collezioni di manoscritti oggi conservate nelle biblioteche italiane* [1936], Sparr (1937), and Kristeller (1948) showed some diversity in coverage and considerable diversity in form of entry. A few examples of the latter will suffice. Giuseppe Molini (*Codici manoscritti italiani* . . .) is listed by name in de Ricci but only by title, as if anonymous, in Gabrieli, Francesco Palermo (*I manoscritti dell'F. e R. Palatina* . . .) is cited by de Ricci as in 3 vols. and 1 pt., but in Gabrieli and Kristeller as in 3 vols. Aurelio Bianchi (*Relazione . . . dei manoscritti . . . di Filippo Pacini* . . .) is listed by name in de Ricci, Richardson, and Sparr (wherein it appears as a separate publication), but under the collective title, "Indici e Cataloghi," by B. N., Gabrieli and Kristeller. Lupo Buonarzi (*Catalogo dei codici arabi* . . .) is listed by de Ricci as a separate (43 p.) offprint from *Cataloghi dei codici orientali* . . ., for which volume and year are not given, whereas Gabrieli lists the title only in series for which all indicia are supplied. And August Reifferscheid (*Bibliotheca patrum . . . italica*), omitted by de Ricci, is listed in diverse ways by the B. N. and Gabrieli (separate publication, general), Richardson (without title of work, with pagination curtailed), and Kristeller (full references, full analysis), *Caveant lectores et collaborantes*.

<sup>18</sup> An example of this method is the recent publication of the Library of Congress, *British Manuscripts Project: A Checklist of the Microfilms Prepared in England and Wales for the American Council of Learned Societies* (1955; xvii, 179 p.), wherein more than 11,000 titles are listed on 145 pages. The type size was reduced photographically from 12 point to 8 point.



pages of lists to which would be added title pages, introduction, and name index which, for discussion, may be estimated arbitrarily at another 200 pages. For the archival series the estimated 100,000 finding aids would produce 2,000 pages of text and would require some 500 pages of introductory and final matter. That is, the two series would appear on a grand total of only 3,300 pages.

#### *Schedule, Costs, Funds*

Cooperative projects, especially those on an international scale, have never been distinguished by the celerity of their completion. Probably five years would elapse between the active inception of the project and the publication of the final fascicle. The choice of locale for the central office and for the reproduction will affect the costs materially, although probably not so much as it would have done even 20 years ago. Other cost factors are the size, qualifications, and rates of remuneration of paid staff; the number of contributing staff; the amount, if any, of space, equipment,

and utilities services furnished gratis to the central office.

The cost of a project the size of that proposed here will not be negligible. It is, very probably, too expensive for self-support through subscription. It is, however, the type of project to which institutions, public or private, such as libraries and academies often have offered hospitality in the past. It is, moreover, the type of project which should appeal directly to those philanthropic foundations interested in the dissemination of ideas which will lead to better understanding between peoples. It is nothing less than the key to the keys to knowledge that is locked in unpublished source materials. The division into manuscript and archival series and the possible further division of each into an Eastern and a Western subseries would permit partial support of the project by each of several foundations. The interest, at 5% on one million dollars guaranteed annually for five years would do much to assure the inception and successful prosecution of the project.

## Classification Schemes in Specialized Fields

Classified outlines of subject matter in specialized fields of knowledge are currently being collected by the Special Libraries Association. Such classification schemes are of tremendous help, not only to librarians but to researchers, scientists, and others concerned with organizing the literature in their particular fields of interest.

The Special Libraries Association maintains a "loan collection" of such classifications on subjects ranging from "accounting" to "wood." The collection includes both the natural and social sciences in broad categories such as chemistry, physics, and law, and also in narrower subdivisions such as "entomology," "radiology" and "steels."

This collection of classification schemes is currently being brought up to date and ex-

panded, and contributions of classifications for all fields of knowledge are being solicited. Such contributions can be donated either on a permanent basis or on loan.

The collection is housed at the School of Library Science, Western Reserve University. Plans are under way to supply microfilm or photostat copies at a nominal fee.

The work of enlarging the collection and bringing it up to date is under the direction of the Committee on Special Classifications of the Special Libraries Association. Donations of classifications or requests for further information should be addressed to: Allen Kent, Chairman, Committee on Special Classifications, SLA, c/o School of Library Science, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio.

## Library-Book Trade Relations in the Field of Current Books

IT IS APPARENT TO ANYONE who cares to look into the matter that, strangely enough, library literature pertaining to the field of acquisitions is meager. This is especially true of the phase of acquisitions related to purchasing. Consequently, the subject of librarian-bookseller relationships has been woefully neglected in the writings and discussions of the library world.

What little has been said about the interdependence of librarians and booksellers has usually revolved around those aspects of the trade related to out-of-print and rare books. The current book trade, both domestic and foreign, comes up less frequently as a subject for consideration. Surely this cannot be attributed to any lack of common meeting ground between the librarian and bookseller. What librarian at all concerned with acquisitions, or what dealer in current books, is not interested in ordering, service from suppliers, invoices, discounts, claims, elusive materials, files of outstanding orders, continuations, bibliographical work, personnel problems, administration, to name the more obvious matters?

The librarian tries to devise the most efficient method of ordering; the bookseller does the same. The librarian demands invoices from the bookseller which are accurate, made out as requested and presented with the utmost speed; the bookseller makes the same demands

of the publisher. The librarian requests efficient, prompt service from his bookseller; the bookseller requires the same of his publisher. The librarian seeks the best possible discount from his bookseller; the latter does the same from the publisher. The librarian must follow up his orders by maintaining files for outstanding requests and by devising efficient claim procedures; the bookseller, if he is to operate efficiently, must do likewise. The efficient librarian should do some bibliographical searching in conjunction with ordering; the expert bookseller must often do likewise. The librarian must entice professional and subprofessional help and devise sundry ways of keeping his people; the bookseller, too, must concern himself with personnel and its problems. The capable librarian should combine bookmanship and administration; the successful bookseller must do so.

But this labors the point. One need go no further to demonstrate that technical processes in libraries parallel the activities of a bookselling organization. If, then, the librarian and the bookseller use so many similar if not identical procedures, certainly a frequent exchange of ideas is in order. Both stand to profit from better communication. The librarian can transmit ideas which will enable the bookseller, who is in a way an extension of the acquisitions department, to provide better service. The bookseller can offer suggestions which would not only make his own task easier but would result in greater efficiency. Improving communication between the two would redound, in the end, mostly to the advan-

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tage of the librarian. Certainly, for the librarian, such exchange of thought would throw more light upon the book market, which to quote our chairman, Mr. Vosper, "is an important subject not adequately understood by most librarians."

Time does not permit a full scale discussion of the various phases of librarian-bookseller relationships. However, a few minutes can be devoted to several topics of common interest, which may lead to an exchange, if not of ideas, at least of some information.

For example, take the subject of current American publications. The librarian today can place his order for such books with four different types of suppliers: (1) the publisher; (2) the local bookseller; (3) the large general bookseller or library agent, usually located in the metropolitan areas; and (4) the jobber.

Depending on circumstances, the librarian may find it to his advantage to use each of these agencies. If he is interested in consolidating his orders, with economy in mind, he must turn either to the jobber or to the large general bookseller. The jobber will allow the better discount; the large general bookseller will not grant a high discount, but he will provide better service in out-of-the-way, non-trade, and out-of-print titles.

The librarian not too concerned with consolidation of orders may perhaps rely upon several or all four agencies. Obviously, the more sources from which the library orders the greater will be the work-load of that library: more invoices, more correspondence, expenses of one kind or another. Incidentally, when a librarian splits his orders, he should, for the good of all concerned, keep in mind that his demands for service should not be unreasonable. If he allots only the elusive and short discount material to the bookseller best equipped for it, would it not be wise to favor that same bookseller every so often with orders for some

profitable material as well? This leads us to the question of discounts.

One cannot criticize the librarian for seeking the best terms possible on domestic publications. Nevertheless, blind insistence on discounts to the exclusion of all other considerations does not make for a sound bookselling economy. Surely, such an economy is vital to the acquisitions librarian who needs ever-improving service from the bookseller. Consider, for example, the case of the library agent. The large general bookstore, or library agent, willing and able to handle most any type of order, has all but disappeared from the scene, simply because he could not meet the discounts offered to the librarian by jobbers and publishers. By buying directly from both these agencies at high discounts and not from a retailer, such as the library agent, the librarian has been directly responsible for the virtual elimination of that type of bookseller from the picture. As a consequence, the librarian may soon be forced to split his orders even though at times he may prefer not to do so. The gain in discount in many cases, if carefully measured, may prove to be negligible in relation to the loss of services. Furthermore, a library agent can be of help in many different ways. For example, there is one important library which, having complete faith in its library agent, has recently arranged to receive one annual invoice, not itemized, for many of its foreign periodical subscriptions, with the understanding, of course, that it can obtain itemized information upon request. How much time, trouble and expense such a procedure can save!

The continued placement of such a premium on discounts could conceivably result in a dangerously unhealthy situation in the book industry. If large bookselling concerns are forced into a precarious financial condition, it will most assuredly *not* be to the advantage of the librarian. Certainly the picture is not exaggerated. Witness how few concerns that

are booksellers in the true sense of the word are left in the United States today. This is a situation quite contrary to that existing in most European countries.

Another subject of possible interest to librarians and booksellers is that of foreign publications. Librarians who purchase current foreign books through booksellers find a rather ideal situation today, especially if the publications are from Europe. Many order directly from the country of publication. Others order from American agents. According to John Fall: "In general it will be found that the American dealer is aware of foreign competition and that he has adjusted his prices to conform to European prices or even to improve on them."<sup>1</sup> American dealers have facilities in other areas of the world also, much to the librarian's advantage. These dealers often employ persons who are acquainted with a number of foreign languages, and they may have foreign offices staffed with local personnel. The importance of dealing with publishers and bookmen abroad in their own tongue and, in so far as possible, according to their own patterns, should not be underestimated.

Among various special aids to libraries, the American importer can often arrange to bind the paper-back foreign books before delivery. When there are several editions available of particular titles, he can at times choose the one most suitable for library use.

In skimming over the subject of foreign books, one would be remiss not to mention the valuable service which dealers in foreign books provide through their periodic lists and catalogs of new publications. Even from countries where bibliographies are good, any news of books and periodicals should be invaluable to the librarian. Often such announcements will offer detailed descriptions, and will call attention to items far in advance of publication. These titles may not appear

until much later in the regular bibliographies and then often with a paucity of information.

The bookseller is much concerned with library order procedures, whether for foreign or domestic publications. He is interested first in the bibliographical information which the librarian supplies, and second in the form in which the order is placed.

Although the bookseller is equipped to supply or add to the bibliographical information on an order, certainly this should be no reason for leaving out any available data, especially if it happens to be right on hand, when the order is prepared in the library. Why do some librarians neglect to mention when ordering that a particular book is known to be out of print? Obviously it makes all the difference in the way the bookseller will handle that order. The bookseller will deplore any trends in libraries which seek to cut down on essential bibliographical work performed before a title is ordered. The librarian who is primarily interested in getting the book should know that whatever information he can contribute will increase the chances of obtaining it, as well as speed up delivery.

It is surprising to see how often a title may be reported unknown or out of print by harassed or understaffed booksellers simply because the librarian did not take the trouble to establish the correct name of the author. The expert, well-staffed book concern will endeavor to avoid this, but it may receive the order only after others have had it and after much time has been lost. Actually, the dealer does not require too much data. He will be happy if he can at least have the author's name in correct form, the name of the publisher, and the place of publication for some of the foreign titles. Of course, in the case of smaller libraries with inadequate sources of information, asking for even such rudimentary facts may at times be unreasonable.

The manner in which orders are

<sup>1</sup> John Fall, "Problems of American Libraries in Acquiring Foreign Publications," *Library Quarterly*, XXIV (1954), 701-13.

placed, thanks to the introduction of multiple order forms, has received quite a bit of attention in the library world in recent years. The bookseller is indebted to the librarian for introducing this new procedure. He, too, in many instances, now does his ordering in the same way. However, some of the library forms seem not to have been designed with much consideration for the bookseller. It behooves the librarian who is about to adopt a multiple-form system to help the bookseller if he can, for then he will be repaid with better service.

What the bookseller wants above all is a 3" x 5" slip, simple in design. He would prefer not to receive the eighth or ninth copy and would be delighted with the first. Having the library's name on the top, instead of anywhere else on the slip, is preferable. Certainly he looks askance at those multiple order forms that are accompanied by a covering letter bearing necessary information which does not appear on the order forms themselves. He himself is then obliged to transcribe such data, relating (for example) to fund or blanket order number, to each slip. Nor is he pleased with an arrangement whereby he is required to return his one and

only form when he supplies the book. In such cases he is left without an original record and must, if he is to operate intelligently, make a copy for his own files. Why not furnish the bookseller a form in duplicate if one copy must be returned to the library?

Surely something can be done to standardize the myriad of forms now in existence. The bookseller and the librarian, we are sure, welcome the suggestion which appeared in a recent issue of the *Journal of Cataloging and Classification* recommending that a committee investigate the possibility of developing a multiple-copy order form to meet the needs of many librarians.<sup>2</sup> Certainly it should not be an impossible task for some division of the ALA to accomplish.

The subject of librarian-bookseller relationships in the field of current books is a broad one. It is gratifying to observe the trend toward more discussion. Booksellers would like to meet more librarians, especially order librarians and would welcome them in their offices or shops that they might observe how the book trade operates and meet the people with whom they share mutual interests.

<sup>2</sup> *Journal of Cataloging and Classification*, XI (1955), 106.

## List of Standard Lists Published

In 1951 the Council of National Library Associations created the Committee for the Protection of Cultural and Scientific Resources to study proposals for the preservation of library, archival and museum materials in the event of atomic warfare.

After four meetings the Committee relinquished any ideas of broad-scale "protective" programs and agreed to recommend instead the systematic strengthening of resources on a regional basis to make each region self-sufficient in the books needed to continue research. To this end the representatives of the various library associations represented agreed

to stimulate the production of "standard collection" lists which would aid in defining the desired level of resources.

As a first step toward the production of these lists it was agreed to prepare a list of "standard collection" lists. This has been published as: *A List of Checklists Used in Surveys of Library Book Collections*. Prepared by the staff of the Library of Congress at the committee's request, this eighteen page list may be requested from the committee's chairman, Scott Adams, National Institutes of Health Library, Bethesda 14, Maryland.

## Selected Reference Books of 1955-1956

### INTRODUCTION

LIKE THE PRECEDING ARTICLES in this semiannual series<sup>1</sup> this survey is based on notes written by members of the staff of the Columbia University Libraries. Notes written by assistants are signed with initials.<sup>2</sup>

As the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and foreign works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well-balanced or comprehensive. Code numbers (such as A11 and JA26) have been used to refer to titles in the *Guide*<sup>3</sup> and its first Supplement.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

*Bibliographical Services Throughout the World: Annual Reports 1st/2d*. . . 1951/53. . . [Paris] UNESCO, 1955. . . (Reports 1st/2d issued as UNESCO Bibliographical Handbooks. 4. \$2.75.)

Compiled by: Reports 1/2, L. N. Maldès; Report 3, R. L. Collison.

Based on information supplied by leading library authorities throughout the world, these reports, the first two of which have been issued in a basic volume, have been compiled in accordance with the recommendations of the International Advisory Committee on Bibliography and are intended "to present an account of bibliographical activities in various countries." Although information is uneven, the following material is usually included for individual countries: national

bibliographical commissions, library cooperation, national bibliographies, periodical indexes, current bibliographies of special subjects and types of materials, training in bibliography, bibliographical desiderata, and principal bibliographical publications. In addition, the second report has a considerable section devoted to the bibliographical activities of international organizations; and the third report, a special study of the current national records of maps. The third report is issued in mimeographed form as an interim annual report. It is planned to issue such interim reports annually with five-year cumulations.—K.L.

Bibliographical Society of America. *Bibliography of American Literature*, comp. by Jacob Blanck. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1955. . . v.1. . . \$15 per vol.

Contents: v.1, Henry Adams-Donn Byrne.

A selective bibliography of American authors, which, when completed, will include the works published in book form of approximately 300 writers from the beginning of the Federal period up to and including persons who died before the end of 1930. Authors whose writings do not have literary interest or are not of the character of belles lettres are excluded.

Material for each author is arranged chronologically and includes: (1) first editions of books and pamphlets, and any other book containing the first appearance of any work; (2) reprints containing textual or other changes; (3) a selected list of biographical, bibliographical and critical works. Periodical and newspaper publications, later editions, translations and volumes containing isolated correspondence are not included. Location is indicated only for those copies examined.—K.L.

### ENCYCLOPEDIAS

*Enciklopedija Jugoslavije*. [Miroslav Krleža, editor-in-chief] Zagreb, Leksi-

Miss Winchell is reference librarian, Columbia University.

kografski Zavod, 1955-. v.I- . il.  
Approx. \$14 per vol.

Contents: v.I, A-Boskovec.

The first volume of a new encyclopedia in Serbo-Croatian. Its focus is national, dealing with the history and culture of the peoples of present-day Yugoslavia, with a considerable amount of biography. Most articles are signed and contain bibliographical notes on the literature of the subject in the native languages. The encyclopedia is printed in Latin characters, but books in Cyrillic are listed in Cyrillic characters in the bibliographies.—E.B.

#### PERIODICALS

*British Union-Catalogue of Periodicals.*

Ed. by James D. Stewart with Muriel E. Hammond and Erwin Saenger. New York, Academic Press; London Butterworth, 1955-. v.I- . \$32.20 per vol.; to subscribers \$26.60.

Contents: v.I, A-C. 691p.

This is a union list of "periodicals of the world from the seventeenth century to the present day (in whatever language and on whatever subject) represented permanently in British libraries." All types of periodicals are included except the following: newspapers first published after 1799, periodicals not printed from type, annual reports of a purely administrative nature, and local directories, guides and handbooks. There is to be information on over 140,000 titles contained in 440 libraries, and, although all locations for an individual title are not necessarily listed, emphasis in most cases has been given to a library's special, rather than general, periodical material. To be completed in four volumes.—K.E.

#### LIBRARIES

*American Library Annual for 1955/1956-* . Ed. by Wyllis Eaton Wright . . . and the editorial staff of the R. R. Bowker company. New York, R. R. Bowker, 1955-. (165p. \$5.)

The first of a new series, which bears little resemblance to the volumes which appeared 1911-12 to 1917-18. Part One is a directory of library associations, their officers, committee members, joint committees, and an "ac-

tivities index" (organizations listed by interest or activity). Part Two is a collection of library statistics (circulation, expenditures, grants, etc.), book trade statistics, and a collection of miscellaneous items including a list of professional periodicals, a brief "hall of fame," literary awards and their winners, and a classified buying guide for library supplies.—E.G.

#### RELIGION

Deen, Edith. *All of the Women of the Bible*. New York, Harper, 1955. 410p. \$4.95.

A highly readable collection of biographical sketches of all women, whether named or unnamed, mentioned in the Bible. The most prominent figures are covered in longer essays in Section I, while Section II is an alphabetical listing of all named women, with cross references to Section I wherever applicable. Section III is composed of chronological listings of nameless women grouped under the following headings: daughters, wives, mothers, widows, and other unnamed women. Complete Biblical references are given in all cases.—K.L.

Diehl, Katharine Smith. *Religions, Mythologies, Folklores: An Annotated Bibliography*. New Brunswick, N.J., Scarecrow Press, 1956. 315p. \$6.50.

A bibliography intended to serve as an "introduction to the literature of faith and practice in all cultures," including literary and historical guides, various scriptures and commentaries, records of institutional accomplishment, and some biographies. Almost all works cited were published later than 1900, and with few exceptions are written in English. Although the preface states that "complete coverage in theological and sacred studies is not pretended," the emphasis is obviously on religion, and folklore and mythology are largely neglected. The material is divided into three main sections, each covering a religious group or period, and a fourth section consists of a list of related journals. An author and title index is included, and brief annotations are provided in most cases.—E.G.

Karrenberg, Friedrich. *Evangelisches Soziallexikon; im Auftrag des Deutschen*



*Evangelischen Kirchentages*. Stuttgart, Kreuz-Verlag [1954] 1175p. DM38.

Although intended for the Protestant layman as a compact work of reference on current social questions, the compilers, a group of 160 German Protestant social scientists, attempt to trace the historical development of each question, presenting Catholic and secular, as well as Protestant viewpoints. Topics covered include, in addition to sociology and social work, the social aspects of biology, economics, law, medicine, etc. The articles, although compact, are fairly exhaustive with up-to-date bibliographies.—S.S.

*The Mennonite Encyclopedia; a Comprehensive Reference Work on the Anabaptist-Mennonite Movement*. Scottdale, Pa., Mennonite Publishing House, 1955-. v.1- . il. \$10 per vol.

Contents: v.1, A-C. 749p.

To be in four volumes, this new encyclopedia is designed to treat "historical and contemporary topics relating to the Anabaptist-Mennonite movement from the beginning in the early sixteenth century to the present time."—*Preface*. It covers the theology, ethics, history and biography of the movement with special emphasis on existing and extinct congregations, organizations and institutions in all countries, including Russia, Prussia and Poland where organized Mennonitism is now apparently extinct. Articles vary in length from a few lines to several columns, are signed and include bibliographies.

*Twentieth Century Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge*. Lefferts A. Loetscher, editor-in-chief. Grand Rapids, Mich., Baker Book House, 1955. 2v. \$13.50.

The *New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia* (Guide K8) has been a standard authoritative work for several generations and is now being brought up to date by these two supplementary volumes which cover the twentieth century. Newly written by a large number of scholars, these volumes include: (1) many biographical sketches of persons both living and dead, (2) articles on old subjects in which there have been new developments, (3) articles on new subjects. There are bib-

liographies at the ends of many articles, and while citations are largely to works in English, some titles in other languages are also included. Articles are signed. These volumes will be needed by all libraries which own the original set but can be used independently by others who are interested in twentieth-century religious history and development.

Vollmar, Edward R. *The Catholic Church in America; an Historical Bibliography*. New Brunswick, N.J., Scarecrow Press, 1956. 354p. \$7.50.

Covering the period 1850-1950, the work lists nearly 4,500 books and periodical articles on the history of the Catholic church in the United States. Arrangement is by main entry in a single alphabetical listing, with a subject index. While the bibliography is admittedly selective, "the tendency was to include, rather than exclude, items of limited value." Users of the work are referred to the *Index to Catholic Pamphlets* for pamphlet materials, and a separate bibliography is planned for dissertations and masters' essays. For materials published since 1950, a bibliography of writings on church history appears annually in the May issue of the *Historical Bulletin*.—E.S.

#### FOLKLORE

Erich, Oswald Adolf. *Wörterbuch der deutschen Volkskunde*, begründet von Oswald A. Erich und Richard Beidl. 2.Aufl. neu bearb. von Richard Beidl. Stuttgart, A. Kröner [c1955] 919p. il., maps. (Kröners Taschenausgabe, Bd. 127) DM 17.50.

The 1936 edition, to which a number of Berlin folklore specialists contributed, was scorned by at least one Nazi critic for being too learned and for including too many foreign terms (*Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie*, v.62, 1937). A co-author of the first edition has revised and expanded it, presenting a reference tool useful to anyone working in folklore or related fields. The work continues to be in dictionary form with numerous cross references. Articles are unsigned but specific acknowledgments are made in the introduction. The longer articles contain extensive bibliographies. Latin characters in place of Fraktur used in the first edition improve

legibility but the space-saving typography is still dense and difficult.—E.B.

Snell, Bruno. *Lexikon des frühgriechischen Epos*, in Zusammenarbeit mit dem Thesaurus Linguae Graecae und mit Unterstützung der UNESCO und der Joachim-Jungius-Gesellschaft, Hamburg, Göttingen, Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1955-. Lfg. 1-. DM 24.

This dictionary is the first part of the *Thesaurus Linguae Graecae* to be published. Although similar in its general intention to the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae* (Guide M340), the Greek *Thesaurus* will be published in a different form. A series of dictionaries, each covering a different literary period, will form the complete set. This first dictionary, presumably to be completed in 25 fascicles, will list every word which occurs in the text of each of the early Greek authors up to the time but not including the works of Antimachos.—S.S.

Thompson, Stith. *Motif-Index of Folk-Literature*. Bloomington, Ind., Indiana University Press [1955- ] v.1-. \$81 the set.

The first volume of the new edition of the standard work in the field (Guide K269), this seems more of an expansion than a revision; i.e., the classified arrangement and the topical headings follow closely the plan of the original of 20 years ago, with the addition of references from a large number of new sources. Except by the specialist, fullest use of the material can be made only through the index volume, yet to appear. Spot-checking of sample categories and examination of the basic bibliography substantiate the statement that inclusion of new materials "about doubles the size and scope of the original."—J.N.W.

#### SOCIAL SCIENCES

*Asian Recorder*. New Delhi, P. S. Sandaran, 1955-. Weekly. v.1-. January 1955. Yearly subscription £6.10s.

Patterned after *Keesing's* and *Facts on File*, this loose-leaf service is subtitled "a weekly digest of outstanding Asian events with index." Arrangement is alphabetical by name of Asian countries with added sections for

"Asia outside Asia," and sport. Under the country headings topics appear in boldface and are designated A, B, C, etc., for index reference. Where numerous topics are treated, a "summary" of topic headings follows the country entry. Quotations from Asian newspapers are frequently included but only the name of the paper, not page or date, is cited. Indices are issued quarterly, the fourth index being cumulative. A three-year cumulative index is also promised.—E.S.

Gulick, Charles Adams. *History and Theories of Working-Class Movements; a Select Bibliography*, comp. by Charles A. Gulick, Roy A. Ockert and Raymond J. Wallace. Berkeley, Calif., Published jointly by the Bureau of Business and Economic Research and Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, 1955. 364p. \$4.50.

The contents of 180 journals and magazines from 1800 to date have been indexed to furnish the several thousand items of this bibliography. Arrangement is first by country, then classified by topic and subtopic, with focus on the relationship of the topic "to the organized activities of working people." Only articles in English are included, and although there is some coverage for the U.S., most attention is paid to British and other foreign movements. There are no indexes.—J.N.W.

Hauser, Philip Morris and Leonard, William Ramsdell. *Government Statistics for Business Use*. 2d ed. New York, Wiley, 1956. 440p. diags. (Wiley Publications in Statistics) \$8.50.

For 1st ed., see Guide L448.

This edition has been revised to present a description of the federal statistical system and the changes that have occurred since 1946 including descriptions of the data of the recent censuses. Thirteen of the fourteen chapters in the first edition have been revised, one has been dropped, "Accounting Statistics," and two have been added, "International Statistics" and "Some Uses of Sampling and Sampling Aids."

Schweizerische Gesellschaft für Statistik und Volkswirtschaft. *Handbuch der schweizerischen Volkswirtschaft*. Aus-

gabe 1955. Bern, Benteli [1955] 2v. Sw.fr. 120.20.

A revised edition of the 1939 reference work (*Guide* L337) on the economy of Switzerland. As before, the work contains long signed articles by specialists connected with Swiss business and government organizations and universities. Emphasis is placed on the period following the outbreak of World War II. Arrangement is alphabetical with a subject index; articles contain bibliographies, tables and diagrams.—E.B.

*Yearbook of Anthropology*. [v.1- ] 1955-. New York, Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research, 1955-. Privately distributed.

The Foundation, closely associated with various aspects of anthropology, is inaugurating in this volume what should prove a useful series to the librarian as well as to the student. Following a guest editorial (by Julian Huxley), the body of the volume consists of some 35 contributed papers, grouped within four major topics of a subject nature, and a regional report of activities. In general, the papers present surveys or opinions reflecting anthropological studies of the years 1952-54; all are signed and documented with extensive bibliographies. The "regional roundup" treats Europe and Southwest Asia and is essentially a country-by-country report of recent and current progress and research. Presumably another area will be covered in the next volume. Particularly interesting to the reference librarian is the final section, which includes a retrospective bibliography of dissertations in anthropology (foreign as well as American), and several lists of awards, endowed lectures, associations, etc. in the field.—J.N.W.

#### DICTIONARIES

Greiser, Josef. *Lexikon der Abkürzungen*. 2.Aufl. Osnabrück, A. Fromm, 1955. 271p. DM 9.80.

This list of approximately 3,000 abbreviations comprises mostly German corporate names, although some generalities are included, as well as a selection of other national and international organizations. Librarians might prefer less space devoted to definitions and descriptions and more to additional ab-

brevisions; German periodical titles, for example, are omitted. Nearly one-fourth of the material appears inconveniently in a supplementary alphabet.—J.N.W.

Schwartz, Robert J. *The Complete Dictionary of Abbreviations*. New York, Crowell, 1955. 211p. \$3.95.

Approximately 25,000 abbreviations representing general terms as well as many from specialized fields. Coverage includes academic degrees, business firms, associations, geographic areas, scientific terms. In the interest of completion, the editor has included a number of items of dubious value.—K.L.

#### SCIENCE

Royal Society of London. *Biographical Memoirs of Fellows of the Royal Society*, 1955-. London, Royal Society, 1955-. v.1- . Annual.

A new series in continuation of *Obituary Notices of Fellows of the Royal Society*, v.1-9, 1932-54 (see *Guide* N66).

Follows the same general pattern as the earlier series.

Poggendorf, Johann Christian. *Poggendorf biographisch-literarisches Handwörterbuch der exakten Naturwissenschaften, unter Mitwirkung der Akademien der Wissenschaften zu Berlin, Göttingen, Heidelberg, München und Wien*, hrsg. von der Sächsischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Leipzig. Red. von Rudolph Zaunick und Hans Salié. Berlin, Akademie-Verlag, 1955. v.7a- (In progress).

For earlier volumes and annotation see *Guide* N65.

Bd. VIIa, Teil 1: A-E. 1.1.1g A-Behrbohm.

This is a new series which includes supplementary material for names mentioned in earlier volumes and new names.

According to the announcement, Bd. VIIa will include bio-bibliographies of scientists, technologists, and doctors from Germany, Austria and Switzerland from 1932-1953. Bd. VIIb will cover other countries.

#### APPLIED SCIENCE

Special Libraries Association. Science-

Technology Division, Engineering Section, Committee on Engineering Abstract Services. *Bibliography of Engineering Abstract Services*, edited by M. M. Landuyt. (SLA Bibliography, no. 1). New York, 1955. 37p. \$1.50.

A special committee of the Science-Technology Division of SLA has done a notable job of listing 231 abstracting services in engineering. For each service, the bibliography tries to give current title, frequency of publication, publisher, address, price, beginning date, where to subscribe, whether the service is only a part of a regular journal, field of coverage, type of service, number of publications abstracted, number of abstracts per year, kind of abstracts, language of abstracts, and index published.—R.S.

#### MEDICINE

U.S. Armed Forces Medical Library. *Armed Forces Medical Library Catalog; a Cumulative List of Works Represented by Armed Forces Medical Library Cards, 1950-1954*. Ann Arbor, Edwards, 1955. Authors: v.1-3; Subjects: v.4-6. \$64 the set.

This five-year cumulation of book materials acquired by the Armed Forces Medical Library is, like the *Index Catalogue*, a unique contribution to medical bibliography. The work is divided into two parts: first, an author catalog, giving author's name, dates, complete title of the work, place of publication, name of publisher, date of publication, number of pages, notes, tracings and A.F.M.L. classification. The descriptive cataloging of old and rare works is more extensive than that of current titles and is uniformly excellent. In Part II, the subject catalog, full bibliographic entries (author, title, etc.) are repeated for each cataloged item, under the appropriate subject.

The first and second catalogs of printed cards (April-December, 1948, and 1949) were published as supplements to the *Catalog of . . . Library of Congress Printed Cards* in 1949 and 1950. These works must still be consulted separately.—E.M.

Medical Library Association. *Handbook of Medical Library Practice, with a*

*Bibliography of the Reference Works and Histories in Medicine and the Allied Sciences*. 2d ed., rev. and enl. Janet Doe and Mary Louise Marshall, eds. Chicago, American Library Association, 1956. 601 p. \$10.

For 1st ed. and annotation, see *Guide* P283.

This edition follows the same plan as the first with the separate chapters written by specialists, but the work has been rearranged, enlarged and revised. It now covers: medical libraries, the Medical Library Association, the medical librarian, administration, acquisition and preservation, classification, cataloging, non-book materials, photoduplication, public relations, reference and bibliographic services, rare books and the history of medicine. *A Bibliography of the Reference Works and Histories in Medicine and the Allied Sciences*, pp. 345-537, lists 1,965 items by subject subdivided by form, and will be of importance in the general library as well as in the special medical library.

#### FINE ARTS

*American Architects Directory*. [1st ed., 1956] Ed. by George S. Koyl. New York, R. R. Bowker, 1955. 723p. \$20.

Published under the sponsorship of the American Institute of Architects, this new directory lists approximately 10,800 architects who are either members of the AIA or otherwise "active in the profession." In addition to the usual "who's who" information, each entry includes additional material on "Principal Works" (buildings or projects in which the architect has been a principal figure) and "Types of Work" (fields of architectural specialization). The directory also contains information on the organization of the AIA, a geographical index of architects, and miscellaneous lists of professional standards, AIA publications, architectural schools, and journals in the field.—K.L.

*Encyclopedia of Painting; Painters and Paintings of the World from Prehistoric Times to the Present Day*. Bernard S. Myers, ed. New York, Crown, 1955. 511p. il. \$10.95.

Although compiled by competent scholars

this book makes no pretense at being a definitive scholarly work and has no bibliography. However, it contains much useful information, some of which is not readily available elsewhere. As is true for any one-volume work attempting to cover all aspects of painting from the beginnings to the present day, there is some unevenness. In one alphabet there are about 3,000 entries for individual painters, definitions, movements, techniques, catch-titles of famous paintings and important museums, as well as numerous cross references. Oriental art is treated under broad headings with cross references from individual artists and more specific subjects. Although the 1,000 illustrations throughout the text, especially the colored ones, leave much to be desired technically, the choice is not confined to the obvious examples.—M.C.

*Svenskt konstnärslexikon; tiotusen svenska konstnärers liv och verk.* [Redaktion: Gösta Lilja, Bror Olsson, S. Artur Svensson] Malmö, Allhems förlag [1952- ] v.1- . Approx. \$30 per vol.

Contents: v. 1-2, A.-Hagström.

When completed (in five volumes and supplement) the work will contain biographies of 10,000 Swedish artists, living and dead, from all periods of Swedish history and embracing all branches of painting, sculpture and the graphic arts (including wood-carving, lithography, engraving, folk art, church decoration, stage and costume design, and the decorative arts). All sketches are signed and present the usual biographical information, with bibliographies for the more important figures. There are portraits of a good percentage of the biographees and the work is profusely illustrated with photographs and reproductions (both in black and white and in color) of a high standard of excellence.—E.S.

#### BIOGRAPHY

Kunitz, Stanley J. *Twentieth Century Authors*. First supplement, ed. by Stanley J. Kunitz and Vineta Colby. New York, H. W. Wilson, 1955. 1123p. \$8.

A supplement to the basic volume (*Guide R57*) containing some 700 new biographies of authors of all nations and types—literary, scholarly, philosophical—who have come into prominence since 1942. Biographies and

bibliographies from the basic volume are brought up to date, and cross references are made to the main sketch of an author in the original volume. Selection of biographies was dependent on reputation and popularity, and, in the case of foreign writers, on the availability of their work in English translation.

Much of the material has been written by authors themselves, with additional editorial comment of a critical and descriptive nature. Each entry has bibliographies by and about the author; the former includes entries through the first half of 1955, while the latter is highly selective and in most cases not current.—K.L.

Matthews, William. *British Autobiographies; an Annotated Bibliography of British Autobiographies Published or Written Before 1951*. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1955. 376p. \$5.

A comprehensive list of autobiographies of men and women of the British Isles, compiled from a variety of bibliographies, library catalogs, second-hand booksellers' catalogs, reviews, and rarer items located on the shelves of libraries in the U.S. and England. Entries are arranged by author, or by title if anonymous, with brief notes characterizing the contents, and with some evaluations. A subject index is provided, with adequate cross references, and larger subjects are subdivided into historical periods. No autobiographical fiction is included, and only those works are listed which are primarily concerned with the significant facts of the lives of the authors themselves. A collection of colonial diaries, omitted from Matthews' earlier *British Diaries*, has been added here.—E.G.

#### HISTORY

Crandall, Marjorie Lyle. *Confederate Imprints; a Check List Based Principally on the Collection of the Boston Athenaeum*. [Boston] Boston Athenaeum, 1955. 2v. \$15.

A completely new and expanded work to supersede the earlier *Confederate Imprints* (1917), this carefully detailed bibliography lists some 5,000 items, plus a large periodical and newspaper collection. In addition to the rich collection of the Athenaeum, other hold-

ings are included, notably the listings from the National Union Catalog, and locations are indicated. Volume I is a listing of documents, first national and then those of the individual states; Volume II lists non-official materials, arranged by broad subject or literary form. The index is of "authors" (including corporate authors), anonymous titles, and the subject sub-divisions."—J.N.W.

*Current Research on the Middle East.* [v.1- ] 1955-. Washington, D.C., The Middle East Institute, 1956-. Annual.

This work lists research which "has been recently completed or is now being undertaken" on the Middle East, i.e., the Arab countries, Israel, Afghanistan, Iran, Turkey, North Africa, the Sudan, Ethiopia, and Eritrea. Although emphasis is on the social sciences, research in the humanities and in the natural sciences is also recorded. Items are numbered and arranged alphabetically by title under main areas of study. Information about each item is detailed and includes: researcher's profession and place of employment, date of initiation of research and estimated date of completion, language in which results are to be presented, estimated length of published work, sponsor, publisher, and often a brief statement about the scope of research. There is an index to researchers and to subjects but none to institutions.—S.S.

*Indice historico español.* Barcelona, Editorial Teide, 1953-. Quarterly, v.1- . March 1953-. Yearly subscription 150 ptas.; single issue 60 ptas.

An extensive bibliography and index designed to include current books and articles, wherever published, which deal with the history of Spain. A brief section on the history of Spanish America is also included. Titles are annotated and evaluated by experts, and references to critical reviews are often given. Published quarterly with annual author and subject indexes. Each volume is also issued in bound form with a different title: *Bibliografía histórica de España e Hispanoamérica*.—S.S.

O'Reilly, Patrick. *Bibliographie méthodique, analytique et critique de la*

*Nouvelle-Calédonie.* Paris, Musée de l'Homme, 1955. 361p. (Publications de la Société des Océanistes, no. 4) 4500 fr.

A comprehensive annotated bibliography of New Caledonia with some 4,000 entries. Chapters are devoted to the geology, botany, zoology, geography, ethnology, history, economy and literature of the area. Texts in the native languages are grouped with the ethnology section. Periodicals published in New Caledonia are listed chronologically in order of date of first publication, together with locations and extensive annotations. An additional chapter is devoted to maps and charts. Bibliographic entries are gratifyingly complete and the work gives every evidence of thorough and scholarly preparation.—E.B.

Streeter, Thomas W. *Bibliography of Texas, 1795-1845.* Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1955-. Pt.1, v.1-2.

Contents: Pt.1, Texas imprints, 1817-1845. 2v. \$20.

Compiled with diligence and scholarly care, Part I of this work includes more than 600 items printed in what is now the state of Texas, before its admission to the Union. Basic arrangement is chronological, and in addition to careful and detailed bibliographic description, with indication of location of copies, there are in most cases lengthy explanatory and historical notes. Supplementary materials include a history of printing in Texas, a bibliography of Texas newspapers, lists of printers, presses, editors, etc., as well as the usual indexes.

Part II is to cover materials on Texas printed in what is now Mexico during the stated period, and Part III the same for other parts of the U.S., and Europe.—J.N.W.

#### CORRECTION

In his article, "Research Libraries in South Africa," in the March, 1956, *CARL*, J. W. Perry states on page 137 that Mendlesohn's *South African Bibliography* has been reprinted. The author informs us that this was an incorrect statement.

# A-V Clearing House

Edited by the  
ACRL AUDIO-VISUAL  
COMMITTEE



No. 5

Louis Shores, Chairman; Fleming Bennett; Jane  
Culler; Budd Gambee; John Harvey; Margaret L.  
Rufsvold; Walter Stone.

## AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT

By Otis McBride  
Director, Audio-Visual Center  
Library School, Florida State University

**W**HAT'S HAPPENING WITH A-V EQUIPMENT? In the space of an A-V Clearing House not too much can be said; but it might be well to run down the line arbitrarily, pick some of the most-used types, and list some of the characteristics and special features. For fuller information see Edward F. Ahrendt, editor, *The Audio-Visual Equipment Directory*, National Audio-Visual Association, Evanston, Illinois, 1955. Some of the information in this report was collected through reference to the NAVA Directory, for which grateful acknowledgment is hereby made.

Suppose we hold to some six main categories, with mention at the end of special or unusual developments of recent times.



16mm Motion Picture Projector (Bell and Howell Film-O-Sound 385-C Specialist)

## 16MM SOUND MOTION PICTURE PROJECTORS

These get better and better. The addition of such things as longer film shoes, simple rewind procedures, automatic loop setters, sapphire parts, etc., make for greater ease of operation and longer life. Sound systems are being made larger and more adequate. Because of space limitations, only five projectors will be listed. There are many more.

### Bell and Howell Film-O-Sound Specialist 385.

The new Bell and Howell Specialist 385 has a 15-watt amplifier instead of 10 as in the former model, and an 8-inch speaker instead of a 6. The automatic loop setter has proved to be quite a convenience, rather consistently resetting the loop without need for stopping the machine. A new all-aluminum blimp has been designed, more effectively to cut out machine noise.

Model CR, \$479.95  
Amplifier 15 watts  
Reverse and still picture

### Radio Corporation of America

Model 400 Junior, \$475  
Amplifier 10 watts  
No reverse and still picture

**Eastman Kodak Company.** Features a new shutter. When the projector is started the shutter, which has three blades, immediately reduces to two, thus increasing materially the amount of light.

Model: Kodascope Pageant, AV-075, \$425  
Amplifier 7 watts  
No reverse and still picture

**Technical Service Incorporated.** Has a special ingenious mirror and small screen arrange-



ment to do rear projection on its own screen, 135 square inches, or on regular screen. Small screen gives good results in lighted room.

Model: Duolite DU-5, \$498  
Amplifier 5 watts  
No reverse and still picture  
Lenses: 2" f/1.6 and 5/8" f/2.0

**Victor Animatograph Corporation.** Two features of the Victor are the 180 degree swing-out lens and the single drive sprocket which controls the film entering and leaving the projector.

Model: Assembly 10, \$447  
Amplifier 10 watts  
Reverse and still picture

#### MAGNETIC SOUND MOTION PICTURE PROJECTORS

Still greater usefulness is brought to the educational film by the magnetic sound projector. A film may be sound-stripped, the stripe being placed beside the optical track, and either can be used. The magnetic track has the same flexibility as a tape recorder. Teacher and pupils may make up their own narration and change it at will. Film production can be greatly aided by the magnetic striping.

The magnetic equipment adds approximately 50 per cent to the cost of the projector. Though you may feel that you cannot afford to own one until they are more widely used and more universally available, they are doubtless here to stay and will be available at a later date, as they add appreciably to the usefulness of films. Most of the companies make special magnetic projectors or attachments to convert standard projectors to magnetic.

#### THE OPAQUE PROJECTOR

Most people seem to agree that this is the most versatile piece of equipment of all. It requires more darkening than others, as opaque materials do not reflect much light. But the room does not have to be pitch dark! What a convenience it is to be able to show the composition of one student to a whole class. The shorthand teacher, the art teacher, the math teacher will find many uses for the opaque. The sewing student may sketch her dress eight inches in over-all height and then blow it up to actual size with the opaque be-



*Opaque Projector  
(Vu-Lyte II, Charles  
Beseler Company)*

fore beginning work on a pattern. Many are the uses! Most models have special features such as built-in pointers and automatic feed.

**Charles Beseler Company.** The new Beseler Vu-Lyte II is about the same weight and size as former

models. Though it uses the same 1,000 watt lamp as previous models, it develops about twice as much light, a dramatic improvement. Much less darkening is needed. Cooling, unfortunately, is about the same as in former models.

Model: Vu-Lyte II, \$249 (without automatic feed and built in pointer)  
Aperture 10" x 10"

#### American Optical Company

Model AO Opaque 1000, \$255  
Aperture 10" x 10"

#### Squibb-Taylor, Inc.

Model TS-5, \$287.50  
Aperture 10" x 10"

**Charles Beseler Company.** We bought one of these and call it "Little Henry." It has a small lamp, only 5" x 5" aperture, and you have to pick it up and place it over the work. But it does a good job. If your school does not happen to have \$275, for \$32.25 it will go a long way toward convincing a superintendent or administrator what the opaque will do and why it is needed. Then you could talk about getting a larger, more versatile and more adequate machine.

Model O, No. 2003, \$32.25  
Aperture 5" x 5"  
Weight, 9 lbs.

#### THE OVERHEAD PROJECTOR

The overhead projector provides light underneath the transparency which reflects the image into the lens above. A mirror reflects this image at right angles onto the screen, thus the instructor may look directly at the work he has placed on the aperture, while the students see it on the screen behind him. He may even write with a grease pencil on a cellophane sheet drawn across the aperture,



*Overhead Projector  
(Master VuGraph 3900,  
Charles Beseler Com-  
pany)*

the writing appearing on the screen behind him. A finger or a fountain pen will serve quite well as a pointer. Thus the teacher may concentrate on his work, facing the class, without the inconvenience of constantly turning to look back at the screen. This is not an opaque projector. The material must be transparent. But material ranging in size from about a  $3\frac{1}{4}$ " x 4" slide up to 10" x 10" (if the overhead is the large type) can be handled with ease.

#### **Charles Beseler Company**

Model: Master Vu-Graph No. 3900, \$295  
Aperture 10" x 10"

**Keystone View Company.** This projector is primarily for  $3\frac{1}{4}$ " x 4" slides. It will take other transparencies up to those dimensions.

Model 1045, \$184

#### **Victorlite Industries, Inc.**

Model: VisualCast Challenger, Type T.A.C.  
\$274  
Aperture, circular, 9" in diameter

**Charles Beseler Company.** This little fellow is brand new. It will project transparencies up to 5" x 5". The machine folds compactly, over-all size and case being 10" x  $18\frac{1}{2}$ " x 8", and weight is only 16 $\frac{1}{4}$  lbs.

Model: Vu-Graph 55, \$155

#### **COMBINATION FILMSTRIP AND 2" x 2" PROJECTORS**

Because of the popularity of filmstrips and 2" x 2" slides, competition has been keen in this area. Most families now contain at least one camera-bug, so that 2" x 2" slides and filmstrips can be produced at home, with subjects of your own choosing, and even in beautiful color. Classroom projectors have lamps of 300 to 750 watts. Five hundred is enough for large classrooms and will make possible showings with almost no darkening. Practically all these projectors intended for

classroom use at all are in combination, 2" x 2" slides and filmstrips. It would be question-



*Filmstrip and 2" x 2"  
Projector (Viewlex F-  
25CL)*

able procedure to buy for your school one that would not handle both, as most teachers who use one will likely want to use the other also. Here is some information on a few. All these are combination 2" x 2" slide-filmstrip projectors. Therefore only name, model, price, and wattage will be given. Many other models and makes are available.

#### **American Optical Company**

MC, No. 3800 (300 watts), \$92  
Educator 500, No. 3824 (500 watts), \$103.50

#### **Eastman Kodak Company**

Signet 300 (300 watts), \$85  
Signet 500 (500 watts), \$98

#### **Society for Visual Education**

Instructor 300 (300 watts), \$89.50  
Instructor 500 (500 watts), \$109.50

#### **Three Dimension Company (Division of Bell and Howell)**

224 Schoolmate (300 watts), \$59.75  
124 Schoolmate (500 watts), \$75

#### **Viewlex, Inc.**

V22CL (300 watts), \$86.75  
V25CL (500 watts), \$104.75

#### **SOUND FILMSTRIPS AND 2" x 2" SLIDES**

It is certainly my prediction that we shall see more and more sound filmstrips and 2" x 2" slides. All that is necessary is that a disc or tape be made to carry the narration with an appropriate signal (small chime, pencil tapped on desk, or something) to let the operator know when to move to the next frame or slide. Narration, if a tape recorder is available, can be made by the teacher or the students.

**Equipment necessary.** No particular purpose is served by having a recorder and projector built into each other. You need both. Buy them separately and use them together

any time your filmstrip has sound. Then when you have a silent filmstrip or a set of slides, the tape or disc playback can be made available to some other user.

### TAPE RECORDERS

There are lots of these. Recorders are beginning to appear now with multiple speakers built in ("tweeters" and "woofers") and



*Tape Recorder (Webcor 2110)*

a range that makes possible rather high fidelity. Tapes are now stronger and brakes on recorders greatly improved, so that tape breakage rarely occurs. New machines are available that reverse,

recording or playing back, either to the left or to the right, on opposite edges of the tape, without the necessity of the reel's being lifted and turned over.

If you can afford such, footage counters are available at slight extra cost. They are quite a convenience, as nobody has figured out a good way to "find your place" in the tape otherwise. If, for example, a 1200 foot tape has a selection from Bach in it that you want to use, you may determine ahead of time that it starts at 758 feet. When it is needed, run the tape to that point, as indicated by the counter, and proceed. Any number of spots can thus be found quickly and easily.

Most new records have fast-forward or reversing equipment. Many have multiple speeds,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , or  $7\frac{1}{2}$  and 15 inches per second. Here is some information on a few.

#### Ampco Corporation

Model 757 hi-fi,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , \$239.95

#### Bell and Howell Company

Model: Specialist 300-S,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , \$299.50

#### Magnecord, Inc.

Model M-30,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , \$299

#### Webster Chicago Corporation (Web-Cor)

Model: Webcor 2110,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , \$209.95

#### Wilcox Gay Corporation

Model: Recordio 4A10,  $3\frac{1}{4}$  and  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , \$149.95

### RECORD PLAYERS

Of course, a large number of record players, even "home-type" record players, will



*Record Player (Newcomb R-16)*

serve quite satisfactorily, except that it would seem pointless to spend money for a beautiful wood cabinet to be carted around for school use. Three speeds are essential. The dual needle set-up is necessary because the blunt needle used for 78 r.p.m. stand-

ard recordings will not fit in the  $33\frac{1}{3}$  r.p.m. microgroove records. The five record players listed below all offer speeds of 78, 45, and  $33\frac{1}{3}$  r.p.m. and have turnover cartridges with two needles. They are self-contained, each having its own speaker. Many models are available to play through a radio or separate amplifier and speaker.

#### Audio-Master Corporation

Model A-M, No. 53-PA, \$89.50

Record size, up to  $17\frac{1}{4}$ "; 12" speaker in detachable cover

#### Califone Corporation

Model 16VP2-5 Quartet, \$139.50

Record size, up to 16"; 12" speaker in detachable cover

4 speeds plus variable

#### Magnavox Company

Model P-50 Classmate, \$85

Record size, up to 12"; two built-in 6" speakers

#### Newcomb Electronics Corporation

Model R-16, \$115

Record size, up to  $17\frac{1}{4}$ "; 10" built-in speaker

#### Webster-Chicago Corporation

Model: Webcor Maestro 1134, \$54.50

Record size, up to 12"; 6" built-in speaker

### THE FUTURE

Many new things in the audio-visual field are in the offing. Perhaps, a few are worth mentioning.

Dramatic developments are being announced constantly in new films. The Tri-X film is faster now than any film that has been before us in film history. Still in the midst of experimentation, emulsion speeds have been found that range from 200 past the capacity of present day light meters. Color is coming in for its share of attention and speed and ease in handling are being increased.

Xenon light, now too expensive for most users, will probably be released in the near future for 16mm and perhaps other types of projection.

The anamorphic lens, which is of course a by-word in 35mm commercial movies, is coming into wider use and fuller recognition in the 16mm field. A number of lenses are on the market for use with cameras in 16mm cinematography. Recently entertainment films became available for use with the anamorphic lens and wide screen.

Equipment is coming out in larger and larger quantities, more streamlined, more adequate, more serviceable. Watch for it!

## U. S. Steel and Remington Rand Grants to Libraries

Two important grants totalling \$55,000 have been received by the American Library Association for the Association of College and Reference Libraries program of grants for college libraries.

The United States Steel Foundation has allocated \$30,000 to ACRL to strengthen college and university libraries by improving their collections, equipment and programs as adjuncts to the teaching and learning processes. In making this grant, Roger M. Blough, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Foundation, stated that "the Foundation was pleased with the results of the initial grant made to the Association last year and desired to continue participation in the plan by which modest aid is provided to scores of colleges for improving their libraries as important adjuncts to teaching." Loyal members of ACRL will appreciate these words of praise for the handling of last year's grant as well as the continued financial support. The Association has wide latitude in the use of the grant. It is expected that distribution of the money this fall will follow the same general policy used in 1955.

Remington Rand has likewise granted

the Association \$5,000 for the ACRL program of foundation grants. The money will be used to make approximately 8-12 grants to college libraries for equipment. Remington Rand is a division of Sperry Rand Corporation, but is better known to librarians for its Library Bureau.

These grants, as well as the *New York Times* grant previously announced, are primarily for the benefit of four-year, non-tax-supported colleges and universities. The September issue of *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES* will carry a full statement on all grants available, the purposes for which they will be disbursed, the general policy of ACRL's Committee on Foundation Projects in making grants, and the procedure of application. Readers are urged not to apply for further information until this statement has appeared. The application forms will be mailed out to librarians in October. No action will be taken on applications until the middle of November. The distribution of funds should be completed on or about the end of the year.—Arthur T. Hamlin.

## Personnel

First woman to hold the position of librarian at Oberlin College will be EILEEN THORNTON of Vassar who will succeed JULIAN S. FOWLER. Miss Thornton will assume her duties at Oberlin on January 1, 1957.

Irish-born, Miss Thornton was graduated from the University of Minnesota and received the A.M. degree from the University of Chicago. She has been librarian at Vassar since 1945, following three years as college librarian and administrative assistant at the University of Chicago. Prior to that she had held various library posts at the University of Minnesota, the Hibbing Public Library, and at other places in the Midwest.

Last year Miss Thornton was college library consultant for the Division of Higher Education of the New York State Education Department. In the summer of 1953 she taught two courses at the Western Reserve University School of Library Science and in 1949 she directed a summer workshop on college libraries at Columbia University's School of Library Service.

Miss Thornton has been an officer or national committee member of various organizations frequently over the years and is, at present, vice-president and president-elect of the New York Library Association.

*Editor's Note:* As this issue goes to press, official news of Miss Thornton's election as first vice-president and president-elect of ACRL has been received.

The biographical information on JAMES SKIPPER which accompanied the notice in the May *CARL* of his appointment as assistant librarian in charge of technical services at Michigan State University was in error. Formerly acquisition librarian at Ohio State University, Mr. Skipper did his undergraduate work at the University of North Carolina. He received his bachelor's and

master's degrees in library science at the University of Michigan, where he is now working on his doctorate.

The librarian whose career was described under Mr. Skipper's name is HENRY KOCH, whose appointment as divisional librarian in the Social Science and Literature Room at Michigan State University was announced in the March issue of *CARL*.



EILEEN THORNTON

FORREST PALMER, for five years on the staff of the North Carolina State College Library, left Raleigh last September to become Director of Libraries at Mississippi State College. Mr. Palmer, a native of Wisconsin, did his undergraduate work at Valparaiso where he received his B.A. in 1948. He received his B.S. in L.S. at George Peabody in 1949 and his M.S. in L.S. at the same institution in 1953.



FORREST PALMER

Mr. Palmer came to N.C. State in 1950 as serials cataloger at which position he worked for one year, becoming serials librarian in 1951 and remaining in that position until his departure.

During the period of his stay at North Carolina State College, Mr. Palmer participated in the planning of a new library building and remained to observe the results of his planning and to make use of the areas in which his work was concerned.

He represented North Carolina State College in the preparation of the "Checklist of Scientific Periodicals," a finding list of scientific periodicals and serials in the Libraries at Duke University, North Carolina State College, University of North Carolina, and Woman's College of the University of North Carolina. This was published in 1954.

North Carolina State College at Raleigh regrets the loss of Forrest Palmer and salutes Mississippi for its fortune in securing the services of an excellent librarian.—Harlan C. Brown.

## Appointments

J. ARCHER EGEN is the librarian of the St. Paul Public Library. He was formerly in charge of the Cedar Rapids (Ia.) Public Library. Prior to that he was librarian of the Fergus Falls (Minn.) Public Library.

GARLAND R. FARMER, JR., is assistant to the director of the Hoover Institute and Library at Stanford. For the last three years he has been director of the World Affairs Council of Northern California.

JAMES J. HESLIN, formerly assistant director of libraries at the University of Buffalo, is librarian and assistant director of the New York Historical Society.

MARY SHEDDEN HOPKINS has been appointed librarian of the Bennington College Library, Bennington, Vermont. Miss Hopkins is a graduate of Vassar College and of the School of Library Service, Columbia University. She was assistant librarian, Webster Branch, New York Public Library before joining the staff of the Bennington College Library as assistant librarian in 1935.

DR. RICHARD G. IRWIN, librarian of the East Asiatic Library and research associate in oriental languages at the University of California, Berkeley, has been awarded a Fulbright scholarship for the academic year 1956-57 to do research on the Chinese novel at Kyoto University, Japan.

GERALD JAHODA is group leader in the research and development department of the Colgate-Palmolive Co., Jersey City, N. J.

PATRICIA B. KNAPP is associate professor of library science at Rosary College, River Forest, Ill. Mrs. Knapp earned her A.B. and her M.A. in library science from the University of Chicago where she is a candidate for the doctorate as well. She worked as a cataloger

and later librarian at Chicago Teachers College, and as a U. S. Army librarian at Sarasota and Miami Beach. Most recently she was librarian and assistant professor of English at George Williams College.

MRS. IRA KÖIV is a member of the staff of the Engineering and Physical Sciences Library of the University of Maryland.

HARRIET LAUBACH is reference librarian at the University of Pittsburgh.

The following appointments to the staff of the Purdue University Libraries have been made: IDA MASONE, assistant reference librarian; MARGOT MOFFAT, assistant circulation librarian; PHILIP J. SCHNEIDER, assistant order librarian.

LOUIS D. SASS will become dean of the Library School of Pratt Institute and professor of librarianship on August 1, 1956. He has been assistant professor of librarianship at the University of California at Berkeley since 1953, following a year as lecturer there. Dr. Sass holds a Ph.D. in Philosophy from Columbia University as well as his professional library degree from the same institution. Before going to California, he held a variety of positions in the technical services departments of the City College of New York Library.

IRENE M. STRIEBY, head of the library of Eli Lilly and Company since its establishment in 1934, has the newly created post of library consultant. LOUISE C. LAGE, formerly assistant chief librarian, succeeds Mrs. Strieby.

DAVID R. WATKINS is head of the reference department in the Yale University Library. He was assistant reference librarian at the University of Minnesota.

## Foreign Libraries

WILHELM BRAUN, director of the University of Greifswald Library since 1947, retired last year at the age of 66.

CARLOS A. BRAVO, noted lecturer and author, is director of the Biblioteca Nacional de Nicaragua in Managua. He succeeds RAMÓN ROMERO.

ALBERT PREDECK, formerly director of the libraries of the Technische Hochschule in Berlin-Charlottenburg and of the University of Jena, died 10 February 1956. Dr. Predeck was well known in England and America for his writings on the libraries of English-speaking countries.

## Books Received

- American College Life as Education in World Outlook.* By Howard E. Wilson. Washington: American Council on Education, 1956.
- Bookman's Guide to Americana. Part II—Literature.* By J. Norman Heard. New Brunswick, N. J.: Scarecrow Press, 1956. 254p.
- Books and Publishing, 1955.* Vol. II. By Charles E. Sunderlin, David C. Mearns, Frances Lander Spain. Boston: School of Library Science, Simmons College, 1955. 55p. \$1.75. Contents.—"The Challenge of Scientific Literature," by Charles E. Sunderlin.—"Of More Portentous Sound: A Codicil to Boston's Literary Testament," by David C. Mearns.—"A Mid-Century Look at Children's Books," by Frances Lander Spain.
- Careers for Graduates: A Handbook of Information.* Ed. for the University of London Appointments Board. London: University of London, The Athlone Press, 1956. 196p.
- Directory of Libraries and Information Sources in the Philadelphia Area.* 9th ed. Ed. by Geraldine R. James for the Special Libraries Council of Philadelphia and Vicinity, a chapter of the Special Libraries Association. Philadelphia, 1956. 132p. (Order from Secretary, Special Libraries Council, Philadelphia.)
- Gifts to the Emory University Libraries, 1945-55.* Emory University, Ga., 1956. 18p.
- A Guide for the Study of Exceptional Children.* By Willard Abraham. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. \$3.50. (Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon St., Boston 8)
- The Harry W. Bass Collection in Business History in the University of Oklahoma Library: As of February 20, 1956.* Norman: Univ. of Oklahoma Library, 1956. 76p. (mimeo)
- Libraria Magna et Libraria Parva dans la Bibliothèque universitaire du XIII<sup>e</sup> siècle.* Par H. J. de Vleeschauwer. Pretoria [University of South Africa] 1956. 60 p. (Mousaion, Nr. 7)
- Library Expenditures, 1920-1955; Library Appropriations, 1944-1956.* Lincoln: University Libraries, University of Nebraska, 1956. 48 p. (Cornhusker Librarian, No. 18)
- List of Subject Headings for Small to Medium Sized Law Libraries (Mainly Anglo-American).* Comp. by Helen McLaury. Chicago: Northwestern University School of Law, 1956. 97p.
- The Papers of Cornelius Cole and the Cole Family 1833-1943: A Guide to Collection 217.* Arranged, annotated, and indexed by Elmo R. Richardson. Los Angeles: University of California Library, 1956. 53p. (UCLA Library Occasional Papers, No. 4)
- Political Handbook of the World, 1956.* Ed. by Walter H. Mallory. New York: Harper, 1956. 228p. \$3.75. (Published for the Council on Foreign Relations)
- Proceedings of the World Symposium on Applied Solar Energy, Phoenix, Arizona, November 1-5, 1955.* Sponsored by the Association for Applied Solar Energy, Stanford Research Institute, University of Arizona. Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, 1956. 304p. \$5.
- The Religious Press in the South Atlantic States, 1802-1865: An Annotated Bibliography with Historical Introduction and Notes.* By Henry Smith Stroupe. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1956. 172p. \$4.50.
- Toynbee and History: Critical Essays and Reviews.* Ed. by M. F. Ashley Montagu. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. 385p. \$5.
- Union List of Serials of Government Agency Libraries of the Philippines.* Comp. by the Staff of the Inter-Departmental Reference Service, Institute of Public Administration, University of the Philippines. Manila, 1955. 623p.
- University Library Problems; Dedicated to Dr. P. C. Goetsee.* Pretoria [University of South Africa] 1955. 87 p. (Mousaion, Nr. 5-6) \*

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The Library of Congress has published *Herbert Putnam, 1861-1955, a Memorial Tribute*. Putnam was Librarian of Congress from 1899 to 1939 when he became Librarian Emeritus, a post he held until his death last summer. This book on one of America's great librarians is largely the work of David C. Mearns, Library of Congress historian and biographer of Dr. Putnam.



## Review Articles

### Bibliographic Controls in the Soviet Union

*Obshchaia bibliografiia. Uchebnoe posobie dlia uchashchikhsia biblioteknykh tekhnikumov.* V. N. Denis'ev. (At head of title: Ministerstvo kul'tury RSFSR. Upravlenie uchebnykh zavedenii.) Moskva: Gosudarstvennoe izdatel'stvo kul'turno-prosvetitel'noi literatury, 1954. 223p.

An interesting survey of the historical background and organization of bibliographic controls in the Soviet Union is contained in Chapter 3 of V. N. Denis'ev's *Obshchaia bibliografiia* (General Bibliography).

Registration of printed matter in imperial Russia was begun by the government in 1837, and until 1855 a "Guide to newly published books" was regularly included in *Zhurnal Ministerstva narodnogo prosveshcheniia* (Journal of the Ministry of Public Education). After being suspended for a certain time, government listing of books was renewed in the form of *Spisok izdanií vyshedshikh v Rossii* (List of Publications Appearing in Russia, which continued until 1903. In July 1907 the Russian government began to publish a special weekly bibliography entitled *Knizhnaia letopis'* (Bibliographic Chronicle).

After the revolution of 1917, the Soviet of People's Commissars in its decree of June 30, 1920, made it incumbent upon the People's Commissariat of Education of the RSFSR to place under bibliographic control all printed matter appearing in the RSFSR. Consequently, on August 3, 1920, this Commissariat issued an order making it mandatory to register any printed material, and by the same order set up the Russian Central Bibliographic Chamber (Rossiiskaia Tsentral'naia knizhnaia palata). In 1925 it was renamed the State Central Bibliographic Chamber of the RSFSR (Gosudarstvennaia Tsentral'naia knizhnaia palata RSFSR), and in 1935 it was reorganized into the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber (Vsesoiuznaia knizhnaia palata).

At present all publications printed within the territory of the U.S.S.R. must be registered with the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber, which also performs the functions of a bibliographic center for the RSFSR. In addition, all constituent republics (with the exception of the Karelo-Finnish SSR and the Moldavian SSR) and certain autonomous republics maintain their own bibliographic chambers, which register and list all publications appearing within the territory of the constituent or autonomous republic. Thus, any book published in a republic having its own bibliographic chamber is listed twice: by the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber in its union-wide *Knizhnaia letopis'* (Bibliographic Chronicle), and by the local bibliographic chamber in its own bibliographic chronicle, which appears under varied titles. In the *Knizhnaia letopis'* the book is described in Russian, with a notation as to the original language in which the book is written. In the local chronicle the book is listed in the original language.

The basis of bibliographic control in the Soviet Union is the so-called "mandatory copy." According to law, all printing and reproducing houses in the U.S.S.R. must send to the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber free of charge a certain number of copies of every publication issued. This includes books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, maps, music, posters, diagrams, charts, reproductions of paintings, etc. One copy of each publication is retained by the Bibliographic Chamber for the Soviet Press Archives (Arkhiv sovetskoi pechati), but the others are distributed free of charge to major depository libraries. In addition to these free copies, the publisher must also send 150 copies of certain types of publications at the regular price to the Distribution Center for Research Libraries (Tsentral'nyi kolektor nauchnykh bibliotek), which supplies university and specialized libraries, as well as the major provincial, regional and constituent republic libraries.

The principal bibliographic tool in the Soviet Union is *Knizhnaia letopis'* (Bibliographic Chronicle), published weekly by the

All-Union Bibliographic Chamber. This guide lists all books and pamphlets published in the Soviet Union, regardless of language or field of interest. All publications are described in Russian, and in the case of publications issued in another language, the name of the language is indicated. Bibliographic data given in *Knizhnaia letopis'* include author's surname and initials, title and subtitle of publication, place and date of publication, publisher, pagination, format (in centimeters), number of copies printed, and price. Annotations describe bibliographic data contained in the publication, and frequently give the contents of a compilation. All materials listed in *Knizhnaia letopis'* are divided into thirty-one subject classes. Quarterly author indexes and an annual index to series are published.

*Ezhgodnik knigi SSSR* (Bibliographic Annual of the USSR) is published on the basis of the issues of *Knizhnaia letopis'* for that year. Since 1945 the *Ezhgodnik* has been issued in two volumes, one for each semester. It has been published for the years 1925-1929, 1935, 1941-1953. All publications listed in *Knizhnaia letopis'* are included in *Ezhgodnik knigi SSSR*, with the exception of materials having limited circulation. The same division into thirty-one subject classes used in *Knizhnaia letopis'* is used in *Ezhgodnik*. The latter also includes an index to authors, compilers, editors and illustrators of the publications listed.

A corresponding annual listing of serial publications is to be found in *Letopis' periodicheskikh izdaniĭ SSSR* (Chronicle of Serial Publications of the U.S.S.R.), which has been issued by the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber since 1933. In it are listed all magazines, newspapers, series, bulletins,<sup>1</sup> etc., appearing in the Soviet Union during the year, regardless of language. In 1938 and 1939 this annual was called *Ezhgodnik periodicheskikh izdaniĭ SSSR* (Annual of Serial Publications of the U.S.S.R.). From 1939 to 1949 the *Letopis' periodicheskikh izdaniĭ* consisted of two parts: (1) periodicals, series and bulletins, and (2) newspapers. A radical change in the contents of the publication took place in 1951. Instead of listing all magazines, news-

papers, etc., appearing during the year, the *Letopis' periodicheskikh izdaniĭ SSSR* lists only new or discontinued serial titles, or changes in title, for the period January 1, 1950, to April 1, 1951. Since 1951 it consists of two parts: the first part lists new and discontinued serial titles, as well as changes in title; the second part provides information regarding numbered series (transactions, scientific notes, etc.) received by the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber during the corresponding year. Consequently, at the present time the basic guide to serials is *Letopis' periodicheskikh izdaniĭ SSSR* for the year 1949, but the *Letopis'* for 1951 and subsequent years provide information only about serials that began publication in those years, or had changes in title, or ceased publication. Complete lists of all magazines, newspapers and other forms of serials of the Soviet Union in the future will appear only once every five years.

Among the other bibliographic tools issued by the All-Union Bibliographic Chamber, mention should be made of *Letopis' zhurnal'nykh statei* (Chronicle of Magazine Articles), *Letopis' gazetnykh statei* (Chronicle of Newspaper Articles), and *Letopis' retsenzii* (Chronicle of Reviews).

*Letopis' zhurnal'nykh statei* has been published since 1926, and at present appears weekly. Prior to 1938 it was entitled *Zhurnal'naia letopis'* (Magazine Chronicle). It furnishes data about articles, documentary materials and pictorial reproductions contained in serials of the U.S.S.R. printed in Russian. It likewise includes materials from transactions, reports, series, bulletins, periodical and non-periodical compilations, and literary-artistic almanacs. *Letopis' zhurnal'nykh statei* does not index articles contained in popular magazines, such as *Rabotnitsa* (Working Woman), *Molodoi kolkhoznik* (Young Collective Farmer), strictly official publications, children's magazines, and a few other types. Some 900 serial issues are indexed. Each issue of the *Letopis' zhurnal'nykh statei* lists the serial numbers indexed in that issue, and the last issue of the year gives a comprehensive listing of all serials indexed throughout the year.

*Letopis' gazetnykh statei* (Chronicle of Newspaper Articles) began publication in 1936. Until 1938 it was entitled *Gazetnaia*

<sup>1</sup> By the term "bulletins" is meant periodicals of a regulatory nature, primarily consisting of official materials.

*letopis'* (Newspaper Chronicle). At present it is published weekly, and describes articles and documentary materials carried in newspapers of the U.S.S.R. printed in the Russian language. These articles are indexed on a very selective basis, and emphasis is placed on the central newspapers, such as *Pravda*, *Izvestia*, *Komsomol'skaia pravda*. Each issue of the *Letopis'* contains a list of the newspapers indexed in that issue.

*Letopis' retsenzii* (Chronicle of Reviews) has been published since 1934, and appears quarterly. From 1939 to 1941 it was entitled *Bibliografiia retsenzii* (Bibliography of Reviews). It lists reviews and critical analyses from magazines and newspapers pertaining to new or newly reprinted publications, music, maps, theatrical presentations and motion pictures of artistic value. At the end of each issue of the *Letopis'* there is an alphabetic list of authors and titles of the publications reviewed. The index to the fourth issue of each year also summarizes the contents of the preceding three issues, thereby serving as an index for the whole year.—Rudolph Smits, *Library of Congress*.

## Libraries in the Southwest

*Libraries in the Southwest: Their Growth—Strengths—Needs*. Ed. by Lawrence Clark Powell. (Occasional Papers, No. 3) Los Angeles: University of California Library, 1955. 70 p. Paper, apply.

On April 16, 1955, the Rockefeller Foundation, Occidental College, and the California Library Association co-sponsored a conference at Occidental College to consider the growth, strengths, and needs of librarianship and libraries in the Southwest. With the publication of *Libraries in the Southwest: Their Growth—Strengths—Needs*, the papers presented at this conference are now available in an attractive format.

Six papers were given at the conference which some five hundred librarians, trustees, and other friends of southwestern libraries attended. In the first paper, Glenn S. Dumke, dean of the Occidental College faculty, seeks a "Definition of the Southwest." Erna Ferguson presents "A Writer's View of South-

west Libraries" and tells in a graceful manner of the growth of the library in Albuquerque, New Mexico, "from the time when a group of ladies put themselves out and worked hard to get a few books together until we have a highly professional service which is serving beautifully well, and with a very great appreciation of the depth and validity, and the value of all those cultures that have gone to make us what we are."

In the third paper, Edwin Castagna, city librarian at Long Beach, California, surveys "Public Libraries in the Southwest" and finds that "public library service throughout the Southwest, except for most of Southern California, is spotty and unevenly developed." He believes that progress can and will be made if southwestern librarians are willing to pool their knowledge, their resources, their hope, and their courage. In discussing Mr. Castagna's paper, San Diego's city librarian, Clara E. Breed, emphasizes three common problems which face southwestern librarians: a tremendous growth in population without a corresponding increase in library services, inadequate financial support of libraries, and shortage of librarians.

The fourth paper, by Fernando Pesqueira, director of the University of Sonora Library, is in Spanish, but an English summary of his description of the "Libraries of Northwestern Mexico and Their Needs" has been provided. Donald M. Powell, University of Arizona reference librarian, in his discussion of Señor Pesqueira's paper makes some interesting comparisons with development of libraries in northwestern Mexico and in his own state.

Patricia Paylore, University of Arizona assistant librarian, deals in a most interesting manner with "The Effect of Climate and Distance on Libraries in the Arid Regions," with special emphasis on libraries in Arizona. Julia Brown Asplund, who, until her retirement after fifty years of service, was with the New Mexico State Library Extension Agency, describes briefly the way in which New Mexico has developed its State Library Service with "a budget of \$2,000 in 1929 to one of \$100,000 in the appropriations of the legislature of 1955."

The final paper in this volume is Lawrence Clark Powell's discussion of "The Re-

sponsibilities of Southern California in Southwestern Library Development" in which he urges "the establishment of a wholly new kind of regional library education program that will recognize the dual nature of library education: that what we teach is matched in importance by whom we teach it to." If such a library education program materializes and Dr. Powell has anything to do with it, one can be certain fortunately that books will be basic in the program.

After reading these papers, this reviewer has the feeling that, with such librarians as those who spoke at the Occidental College conference, the future of librarianship in the Southwest is in capable hands. The University of California Library is to be commended for making available to the library profession at large these informative papers. —John David Marshall, Alabama Polytechnic Institute Library.

## Recent Foreign Books on the Graphic Arts, Bibliography, and Library Science

The new series of "Beiträge zum Buch- und Bibliothekswesen" edited by Carl Wehmer of Heidelberg and published by Otto Harrassowitz (Wiesbaden) includes three numbers so far and compares favorably with the old "Sammlung bibliothekswissenschaftlicher Arbeiten," formerly published by Harrassowitz in Leipzig.

The first volume, Peter Karstedt, *Studien zur Soziologie der Bibliothek* (1954; 97 p.), is an examination of the library as a sociological phenomenon. The author, an attorney, is disturbed by the fact that there are so few points of contact between librarianship and sociology, and he makes a determined effort to remedy this situation. His work is divided into three chapters: historical sociology, systematic sociology, and the *Wissenssoziologie* of the Max Scheler school. In each Karstedt tries to link the library with its social background, to show the forces that brought the library into existence and the effect that it has on the public it serves.

Karstedt draws on a comprehensive read-

ing of sociological literature as well as the literature of librarianship, and he documents his work thoroughly. If Karstedt seems to defend his approach to librarianship somewhat too vigorously at times, it may be attributed primarily to his zeal in expounding a comparatively new viewpoint. The conclusion of his last chapter, that libraries are one of the chief bulwarks of a free society, may sound a bit commonplace to us, but in central Europe this idea cannot be repeated too frequently.

This interdisciplinary approach to librarianship has certain weaknesses. However, failure to provoke new ideas is not one of them. The sociological interpretation of librarianship might be carried too far in some quarters, but Karstedt keeps it to reasonable proportions.

Rudolf Blum's *Der Prozess Fust gegen Gutenberg: eine Interpretation des Helmaspergischen Notariatsinstruments im Rahmen der Frühgeschichte des Mainzer Buchdrucks* (Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 1954; 118 p.; "Beiträge zum Buch- und Bibliothekswesen," 2) is perhaps the most provocative book about prototypography since Wehmer's *Mainzer Probedrucke*. Since this reviewer has found that almost no American librarians are able to identify Ulrich Helmasperger and the famous notarial document named for him, this elementary bit of information might well be repeated here. In the beginning of 1450 Gutenberg borrowed 800 florins from Johann Fust, a citizen of Mainz, for "book production" ("das werck der bucher"), and later he borrowed a similar sum to buy paper, parchment, and ink. Gutenberg put up his printing equipment as security. Since the printer paid no interest, Fust sued him in the fall of 1455 for 2,020 florins to cover capital and interest. The litigation took place in the refectory of the Discalced Monastery of Mainz on 6 November 1455 before Helmasperger (a notary), five witnesses for the plaintiff (including Peter Schöffer), the plaintiff, and his brother Jakob. On Gutenberg's side was the priest Heinrich Günther of St. Christopher's and two of Gutenberg's apprentices. Gutenberg lost the suit, his tools (*geczuge*), and leadership in the craft he invented.

The notarial instrument is far from a clear-cut record of litigation, and every possible interpretation must be tested with typographical, philological, and psychological stand-

ards. Blum believes that Fust suspected that Gutenberg planned to use the loan to prepare the type ("gezuge"), a job for which the money was not lent, and that Fust feared that Gutenberg would buy back the mortgage with the first profits and continue the business alone. Blum goes on to argue that Gutenberg complained that he did not receive the full loan, and this circumstance may be explained by the assumption that Fust withheld the first year's interest. Thus Gutenberg could not meet all his expenses and was compelled to convert some of the loan to produce his tools. Fust, Blum states, was actually attempting to get control of the printing material; and when Gutenberg lost the suit, Fust acquired the type for the 42-line Bible, the Psalter types, and (the boldest of Blum's assertions) the type for the 36-line Bible.

These new interpretations of the actual judgment of the case are convincingly presented on the basis of meticulous examination of texts and types. The concept of Gutenberg and Fust as two competing business men, each determined to secure control of a lucrative new business, seems accurate; and Fust's possibly deceptive evidence is no more reprehensible than many a device used by modern captains of industry. (It is, however, at least somewhat doubtful that Gutenberg converted part of the loan to improper purposes.) It is quite likely that Gutenberg and Fust planned originally to produce a far larger work than the 42-line Bible, to judge from the amount of Fust's loan. When they converted their project to the 42-line Bible, each partner decided to try to buy the other out or otherwise be rid of him and get control of the printing equipment. The decision of the court to give the types to Fust in lieu of the judgment which Gutenberg could not pay opened the way for Fust and Schöffer to become the dominating element in the infant craft.

Friedrich Adolf Schmidt-Künsemüller takes vigorous exception to many of Blum's theories in his critical essay, "Rudolf Blum's Interpretation des Prozesses Fust gegen Gutenberg," *Gutenberg-Jahrbuch*, XXX (1955), 22-32, and points out weaknesses in the study. Nevertheless, he readily admits that Blum's book is a milestone in Gutenberg studies that cannot be overlooked by future students. Immediately following Schmidt-Künsemüller's

essay is a study by a Heidelberg legal authority, Walter Koschorreck, "Zum Prozess Fust gegen Gutenberg; Parteiverhandlungen und Urteil in der Notariatsurkunde des Ulrich Helmasperger," *ibid.*, pp. 33-42.

Hellmuth Helwig's *Handbuch der Einbandkunde* (Hamburg: Maximilian-Gesellschaft, 1953-1955; 3 vols.; DM 160.—) is the most comprehensive treatise on the art of bookbinding that has ever appeared. It is vastly superior to the late Edith Diehl's *Bookbinding, Its Background and Technique* (1946) from the standpoints of organization, coverage, and, above all, historical perception and accuracy. It supplements the Mejer-Herbst bibliography admirably, although the necessity for a new and exhaustive bibliography of bookbinding is still a challenge to bookmen.

The first volume of Helwig's work includes introductory chapters on collecting, bibliography, methods of research, and characteristics of bookbindings, followed by 27 detailed chapters on various historical styles, ranging from Carolingian bindings to the early nineteenth century. Other chapters in the first volume cover auctions, forgeries (a particularly good treatment of this fascinating subject), preservation and restoration, cataloging of bindings, photographing and taking rubbings, and the study of flyleaves from manuscripts and early printed books used in bindings (*Makulatur-Forschung*). The volume has 120 illustrations. There are detailed bibliographical notes.

Volume 2 is a bio-bibliographical dictionary of European bookbinders until approximately the middle of the last century. Most of the entries consist of a name, a date, and a place, and a reference to the literature. To have included full biographical sketches would have swelled the work to completely unmanageable proportions. On the other hand, the paucity of the information about binders is a challenge to compile more works similar to E. Thoinan's *Les relieurs français* (1893) and Charles Ramsden's *Bookbinders of the United Kingdom (outside London), 1780-1840* (1954). There is a topographical bibliography with the most important articles and sections of monographic works relative to bookbinding in countries, provinces, and cities. Finally, the key to the mottoes and initials used as supralibros or in connection

with armorial decorations is a unique reference tool.

Volume 3 is an index to the names in the bio-bibliography (arranged by country in volume 2) and a list of the cities in which they worked. Under each city is a list of binders who worked there.

Helwig's great work is monumental in every respect, and yet there is still abundant room for supplementary studies. He restricts himself largely to western Europe until around 1850, but the proliferation of fine binding since that date is so great that another three-volume work would be necessary to treat it with the same detail that Helwig gives to the previous ten centuries. The field of oriental bindings (above all, of Islamic bindings) could also be treated in a similar fashion. The historical study of binding in the Americas is a pristine field, but there is no sign that we have any Helwig among the few students of the binding of this hemisphere.

The *Handbuch der Einbandkunde* is and will remain for many years the definitive work in the field. No library school or larger research library can afford to be without it. The \$40 price tag attached to it is not exorbitant in any sense for three folio volumes of the magnitude of Helwig's work.

Adolf Rhein's *Das Buchbinderbuch, ein Lehr- und Nachschlagebuch zur Einführung in die Grundlagen der Buchbinderei und Vorbereitung für die Fachprüfungen* (Halle an der Saale: Wilhelm Knapp, 1954) is a complete revision of the author's well-known *Illustriertes Buchbinderbuch* (9th ed. 1930). A glance at the table of contents and the index will quickly identify Rhein's great work as a comprehensive manual, and the 650 illustrations (with some 850 different objects or processes) constitute a pictorial encyclopedia of a craft in which models are of utmost importance. Indeed, the book is so richly illustrated with diagrams and photographs that it will be useful even to the student who does not read German easily.

There are seven main sections in the book: forwarding, finishing, types of covers for the book block, special jobs (e.g., albums, maps, framing), machines, materials (paper, adhesives, leather, etc.), and regulations governing the craft in East Germany. In each section Rhein gives a compendium of the best practice, but he never hesitates to make

direct critical observations from his own rich experience. The wealth of illustrations is carefully related to the text, and the style is unusually lucid for a craftsman who is deeply involved in his own work.

It is highly significant that Rhein is thoroughly versed in the history of binding. In binding, more than in any other craft, knowledge of traditional methods is essential for success at the workbench. While Rhein's work is in no sense a historical treatise, he does bring in noteworthy bindings and binding methods of the past at propitious points in the text.

The problems of book conservation are so complex in research libraries that at least a small working collection on the practical aspects of binding is highly important. The organization, style, and illustrations of Rhein's book place it close to the top of the list.

When the second volume of Joachim Kirchner's *Lexikon des Buchwesens* (Stuttgart: Hiersemann, 1953) appeared, no one expected that additional volumes of this great reference work would appear. Now the intrepid publisher is bringing out a third and a fourth volume, to constitute a *Bilderatlas zum Buchwesen*. Volume 3 appeared in 1955, and volume 4 will appear in the summer of 1956.

The idea of this *Bilderatlas* is to bring together a corpus of illustrations of significant material in the history of the book that is available in no single library in the world. The two volumes of illustrations will illustrate the first two volumes in such a way as to bring otherwise dull facts to life. Articles on bookbinding, book illustration and type design mean little unless accompanied by illustrative material.

The first volume of the *Bilderatlas* contains 412 illustrations on 320 plates. It is introduced by a brief section on famous books, with illustrations ranging from the Ambrosian Iliad through the Droeshout portrait in the First Folio to the title page of the *editio princeps* of *Das Kapital*. Most of the first section, however, deals with special types of books (by subject matter) and forms and parts of books. The second part deals with book illustration, including not only examples but also portraits of artists, techniques, and motifs in illustration. The last section contains illustrations of styles and decora-



tions of bindings and the actual process of binding. The fourth volume will contain sections on printing, paper, the book trade, libraries, and book collecting.

The appearance of the *Bilderatlas* makes the *Lexikon des Buchwesens* a useful item even in libraries where foreign languages are not widely read. It will answer questions about books for undergraduates and the lay public as no other book about books will do.

With the publication of the *Bibliographie des Musikschritums, 1950-1951* (Frankfurt a. M.: Verlag von Friederich Hofmeister, 1954), edited by Wolfgang Schmieder, an exceptionally important music bibliography, discontinued in 1941, is resumed. It is planned to issue the bibliography for two-year periods in the future. Moreover, plans also exist to issue cumulative volumes for the periods 1945-49 and 1940-44, thus providing a continuous bibliography of music literature from 1936 to the present.

When it was decided in 1936 to make a separate publication of the bibliographical surveys in the *Jahrbuch der Musikbibliothek Peters* it was not realized that only four volumes would be issued before publication had to be suspended. Nevertheless, we do have here the beginning of an indispensable tool for music libraries. The new *Bibliographie des Musikschritums* offers much wider perspectives than the publication issued originally under the Nazis, and it will be heavily used in all music libraries.

The arrangement is classified, but there are indexes of subjects, places, names, and authors. Books as well as periodical articles are indexed. A "Zeitschriften- und Quellenverzeichnis" at the beginning of the volume is a useful guide to important serials which were current in 1950 and 1951. There is a high degree of accuracy in the citation of non-German titles. Coverage of non-German publications seems to be quite extensive, although publications from Communist countries are conspicuous by their extreme paucity. In general, the revived *Bibliographie des Musikschritums* is a satisfactory reference work which will be a part of our standard apparatus.

Matts Essén, *Sörmländsk bibliografi* (Eskilstuna, 1954; "Sörmländska Handlingar," no. 17) is a significant regional bibliography executed in such an exemplary style that it might well serve as a model for similar com-

pilations on other regions in other countries. Several useful Swedish regional bibliographies of this type have been published during this century, and another one that might be mentioned here for its formal excellence is G. Ottervik's *Litteratur om Blekinge* (1941).

Essén's work is a revision of his *Sörmlandslitteratur*, which appeared in the same series in 1939 as number 7. Since that time the material published on this Swedish province has been increased substantially; and although there has been an annual checklist in *Sörmlandsbygden* since 1932, a cumulative publication is necessary every decade or so in order to protect the scholar from the tedious job of searching a separate list every year. Although cumulations are impractical for most national historical bibliographies, they are by no means out of the question for local bibliographies. In the United States many state historical journals and other organs are publishing annual lists of writings on state history, many of which are long overdue for cumulation, or at least for cumulative indexes.

The compiler divides the literature on Södermanland into three main sections: (1) a general survey, (2) descriptions of parishes and of people and things pertaining to them, and (3) descriptions of cities, villages, and lakes, and of people and things pertaining to them. Books, periodicals, and official documents are included, and individual sections of important large works are analyzed. This latter feature is particularly useful, although few local bibliographers seem to recognize its value. Often a single chapter in a major work is more important than a dozen minor periodical articles.

The comprehensiveness of the work may be noted in a list of some of the subjects considered in the first part (general survey): bibliography, the church, education, place names and dialect, belletristic literature, art, archeology, history, heraldry (and heraldic book plates), biography, folklore, geography, sociology, economics, communications, sports, military affairs, natural science, and public health. Students of all periods of history will find useful references, but so will scholars in the other fields listed here. As often as not the scholar operating on a national level is likely to overlook local bibliography, but Essén's work is the very best evidence that such a sin of omission is likely to be a very



serious matter. On the other hand, many local bibliographies in all countries are of inferior quality and are far from inviting to the scholar who operates on a high level. More models of the quality of Essén's work should contribute substantially toward alleviating this situation.

The third volume of Joseph Gregor's *Der Schauspielführer* (Stuttgart: Hiersemann, 1955) contains signed summaries of 9 modern Italian plays, 11 modern Spanish plays, 62 modern French plays, 6 modern Rumanian plays, 4 Dutch plays (3 by Vondel, 1 by Heyermans), and 97 English plays ranging from Lyly to Charles Morgan's *The Burning Glass* (1953). There are indexes of authors, titles, one- and two-act plays, and subject matter, and there is also a chronological list. Just as in the first two volumes, there is a brief introduction to each section.

It is to Gregor's great credit that he has not hesitated to make occasional changes in the plan and arrangement of his work on the suggestion of critics. Thus he has inserted plays of Marivaux, Beaumarchais, Merimée, and Labiche inadvertently omitted from their proper place in volume 2, at the end of the section on modern French drama. Moreover, when it was discovered that the size of the work had to be expanded, the publishers co-operated sympathetically with the editor. As things now stand, volume 4 (North American, Scandinavian, and Slavic drama) will appear in the spring of 1956, and volume 5 (Slavic and ancient drama) towards the end of 1956.

Konrad Stollreither's *Internationale Bibliographie der juristischen Nachschlagewerke* (Frankfurt a. M.: Vittorio Klostermann, 1955) is a bibliography that will have significance for general reference libraries as well as for law libraries as a result of the broad scope of jurisprudence as an academic discipline in Europe. Stollreither includes any work of conceivable significance to the social scientist. Thus, for example, we find that his section on national bibliographies is as thorough, and as useful, as any in the general guides to reference works. The section on the bibliographies of dissertations is as complete as any that can be found. On the other hand, his list of catalogs of law libraries and his list of legal periodicals offer information not easily obtained for all countries in the world.

The book is divided into three main sec-

tions: general reference works, general legal reference works, and specialized reference works in various fields of the law. Each section is divided between bibliographies and general reference works. The third section is particularly useful for the scholar not trained in legal matters, since it includes such special fields as philosophy of the law, comparative law and legislation, history of the law, Roman law, civil law, transportation law, commercial law, copyright, insurance law, civil procedure, labor law, criminal law, public law, constitutional law, administrative law, social law, tax law, economic law, agricultural law, and public and private international law. There are supplements on politics and statistics.

The coverage is comprehensive, including all nations in the world. Headings, even in the very detailed index, are in five languages (English, German, Spanish, French and Italian). A check of Stollreither's listings for one American jurisdiction shows that he missed nothing. If anything, he may be criticised for being over-inclusive.

Stollreither's bibliography actually belongs both in law libraries and general libraries. It can be used to good advantage by attorneys as well as others.

The Leksikografski Zavod FNRJ in Zagreb is currently bringing out one of the most extensive encyclopedias to appear in the twentieth century. It will be divided into several different series: a maritime encyclopedia, seven volumes; an encyclopedia of the history and culture of the peoples of the Yugoslav republic, eight volumes; ten special encyclopedias in such fields as art, medicine, law, technology, social studies, music, and agriculture (40 volumes in all); a general encyclopedia, six volumes; and, finally, a comprehensive index to all serials published in Yugoslavia during the last 150 years, 25 volumes. The impressive list of editors and contributors (recorded in a handsome illustrated prospectus, available from the publisher at Jurišićeva ul. Br. 3/1, Zagreb) includes most of the leading scholars in Yugoslavia.

Two volumes have appeared thus far, the first volume of the maritime encyclopedia (*Pomorska Enciklopedija*) and the first volume of the *Enciklopedija Jugoslavije*. The latter, by the way, is an exceptionally rich source of information on Yugoslav libraries

and archives as well as other aspects of the culture of the land of the black lamb and gray falcon. Bibliographies include publications that have appeared within the last few years, and other factual information indicates a high degree of competence among the contributors. Illustrations are very well reproduced, and the maps compare favorably with any that are published in western Europe. Fortunately for English-speaking scholars, the text is in Croatian, and there are no problems involving use of the Cyrillic alphabet.

It is too early to judge the full value of the great series of Yugoslav encyclopedias, but there is strong reason to believe that they will ultimately occupy the same position in our reference apparatus that the Italian and Spanish encyclopedias have won for themselves. Scholarly, accurate, and well edited, the two volumes now in print speak well for standards of learning in at least one eastern European country.

*Aus der Arbeit der wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken in der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik* (Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1955) is a series of 17 essays on various aspects of librarianship in the Soviet zone of Germany. The outstanding librarians in this jurisdiction have contributed essays on the following subjects: structure and organization of the east German library system (Werner Schmidt), cooperation in the service of scholarship (Horst Kunze), contributions of libraries to bibliography and documentation (Curt Fleischhack), library education (Oskar Tysko), cataloging (Joris Vorstius), library methods (Heinrich Roloff), manuscripts and incunabula (Willi Gröber), the Deutsche Staatsbibliothek in Berlin (Horst Kunze), the Deutsche Bücherei (Heinrich Uhlendahl and Kurt Brückmann), the university libraries (Karl Bulling), the provincial libraries (Werner Mecklenburg), and special libraries (Siegfried Joost, Joris Vorstius, Walter Schellhas, and Joachim Brämer). There is a schematic outline of the organization of scholarly libraries in East Germany, a list of bibliographical and library science publications of East German libraries since 1945, and an index.

The entire book is, of course, heavily weighted with specific programs and policies of East German libraries, but it is no less significant or useful for this circumstance. In

some respects the librarians of the Soviet zone are making professional contributions on the same level with those of their western colleagues. Many aspects of reader service, for example, are receiving attention hitherto unknown in Europe. Likewise such men as Joris Vorstius and Heinrich Roloff have made important contributions to cataloging theory and practice. The sections on special libraries reflect a well developed sense of responsibility for this aspect of library service. The entire volume is sufficiently informative and full of ideas to justify careful reading by English-speaking librarians.—Lawrence S. Thompson, *University of Kentucky Libraries*.

## Summer Courses and Institutes

Now in progress (June 25–August 3) is the Third Annual Institute on Historical and Archival Management, sponsored by Radcliffe College and the Department of History, Harvard University. It is being managed by Lester J. Cappon, director of the Institute of Early American History and Culture at Williamsburg, Va.

The School of Library Science of Syracuse University is holding a summer workshop on audio-visual materials in libraries August 13–24. Directed by Professor Carl H. Melinat, the workshop is designed for practicing librarians, teachers, and students who want training in this field but are unable to attend the regular summer sessions. The workshop will cover the selection and acquisition of audio-visual materials for libraries, organization for use, problems of finance and personnel, selection of equipment and experience in its operation, and techniques of effective utilization.

The Florida State University Library School announces a seminar on Educational Television to be held from July 26 to August 11.

## A REQUEST FOR BACK ISSUES

The January and October, 1955, issues of *COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES* are out of print and are in demand by libraries and other members who need replacement copies and need to complete their files. Surplus copies which can be returned to the Chicago office will be used to fill this demand.

## ACRL Microcard Series—Abstracts of Titles

Address all orders for ACRL Microcards, whether standing orders or orders for single titles, to the Micropublication Service, University of Rochester Press, Rochester 3, New York.

KNIER, VALERIE CATHERINE (HIATT), 1929-

Elihu Stout, Indiana's first printer. Rochester, N.Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, copyright 1955. (ii), 44 l. 28 cm. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, no. 48) Thesis (M.A. in L.S.)—Indiana University, 1953. Bibliography: 1. 41-44. 2 cards. \$50.

Elihu Stout, first printer in the Indiana Territory, settled in Vincennes in 1804. Little is known about his boyhood except that he was born in New Jersey in 1782 and was working for John Bradford, public printer of Kentucky, in 1798.

Stout was approved public printer by Governor Harrison. Besides his official printing and his newspaper, Stout printed many kinds of books, receipts, and notices.

During his lifetime in Indiana, Stout held many public offices and belonged to several clubs. He died shortly before the Civil War.

HAAS, WARREN JAMES

English book censorship. Rochester, N.Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, copyright 1955. (12), 80 l. 28 cm. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, no. 49) Thesis (B. L. S.)—University of Wisconsin, 1950. Bibliography: 1. 79-80. 2 cards. \$50.

The Tudors, seeking to solidify their control over both church and government, invoked general rules for the control of the growing press. With the Stuarts, censorship efforts became more frantic and capricious. After the Civil War, the violent attacks on the press by the Long Parliament stimulated Milton to protest with his *Areopagitica*, but not until the end of the century did press freedom become a reality.

Press control, perhaps defensible to the Tudors, was too often turned to the personal use of their successors. The end of censorship is a sign of political maturity attained by the English people as they moved into the 18th century.

ROBINSKI, GEORGE SYLVAN

A brief history of the libraries of Western Reserve University, 1826-1952. Rochester, N.Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1955. (ii), 77 l. 29 cm. map (mounted), tables. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, no. 50) Thesis (M.S. in L.S.)—Western Reserve University, 1952. Bibliography: 1. 75-77. 2 cards. \$50.

This study traces the growth of the libraries of Western Reserve University from the establishment of a library of a few hundred volumes at Western Reserve College in Hudson, Ohio, in 1826, to the movement of the college to Cleveland, Ohio, in 1882, and the subsequent organization and amalgamation of specialized libraries with the growth of the university to a collection of almost seven hundred thousand volumes by 1952. The constant need for more space to house an expanding collection and, since the turn of the century, the attempts at better unifying and administering the university libraries from the main theme.

REYERIDGE, ISABEL EMERSON, 1897-

National Library of Canada. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (12), 36 l. 29 cm. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, no. 51) Thesis (M.S. in L.S.)—Western Reserve University, 1955. Bibliography: 1. [34]-36. 2 cards. \$50.

Early Canadian libraries became incorporated by 1876 into the Library of Parliament, but it was unsuitable to serve as a national library. By 1883, agitation for a national library began, and by 1911 Canadian librarians had launched a drive to establish one. In 1939 the Ontario Library Association appointed a committee to push the matter. Through the efforts of the Canadian Library Association, Parliament, in 1948, adopted a resolution recognizing the necessity for a national library. The Massey Report of 1949 contained a brief from the Canadian Library Association urging immediate action implementing the resolution of 1948, and in December, 1952, the National Library Act was passed and came into effect in January, 1953.

NATION, MARGARET ANN, 1929-

The librarian in the short story: an analysis and appraisal. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (ii), 55 l. 28 cm. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, no. 52) Thesis (M.A.)—Florida State University, 1954. Bibliography: 1. 50-55. 2 cards. \$50.

The term "librarian" often connotes a negative stereotype. In an effort to determine the extent to which this stereotype is affected by the fictional treatment of the librarian, this study analyzes the forty entries listed under the subject heading "Librarians" in the *Short Story Index* (1953). Chapter One lists the entries chronologically and summarizes each, in addition to presenting brief biographies of the fourteen authors. Chapter Two appraises the librarian characters and surveys more minutely the emergence of recurring types or stock characters. The findings of the study show that the entries analysed

fail to present truthful, interesting, or desirable pictures of librarians.

MOTT, CATHERINE DOROTHY, 1927-

The history and present status of the library of the United States Tariff Commission. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (vii, 81 l. illus., tables. 28 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 53) Thesis (M.S. in L.S.)—Catholic University of America, 1955. Bibliography: 1. 80-81. 3 cards. \$75.

The special libraries of the federal government exist primarily to assist the agencies of which they are a part. A few have placed their facilities at the disposal of the public. To the research worker on the tariff and commercial policy, there is an important collection in the United States Tariff Commission Library. This study traces the history of the library from its inception in 1917, in the newly formed commission, to the present collection of over 65,000 volumes. In a survey of current activities, attention is drawn to the library's effort to keep abreast of Congressional action, as it affects the vital function of the commission, of furnishing information to Congress.

SHERA, MARY HELEN

The literature of geochemistry. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (iii, 126 l. tables. 29 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 54) Thesis (M.S. in L.S.)—Western Reserve University, 1955. 4 cards. \$1.

The histories of the chemical laboratory of the U. S. Geological Survey and the geophysical laboratory of the Carnegie Institution are outlined to provide a background for the study of the literature for the beginning student in geochemistry and the scope and usefulness of their major publications in the field are discussed. A survey is made of the sources of geochemical information: (a) indexes and abstract journals, (b) journals and serials, (c) review literature, (d) books and compendia, and (e) geochemical societies, with particular regard to their usefulness to the student.

ALLEN, ALICE STRONG

Library of Congress subject headings and their use in college and university libraries. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (iii, 36 l. tables. 29 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 55) [Master's paper]. University of Illinois Library School, 1955. Bibliography: 1. 32. 2 cards. \$50.

This study is in three parts. I. A questionnaire sent to college and university libraries in Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas showed that 62 per cent of the 85 libraries responding used Library of Congress subject headings as traced. II. Interviews with five members

of the Natural Science faculty at Centenary College of Louisiana indicated that 75 per cent of the subject headings used by LC were acceptable to them. III. Student assignments disclosed that approximately one-half of the headings used by LC are those under which the students would look first.

POTTER, JESSICA CHANDLER

The history of the University of Washington Library. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (iii, 107 l. illus. 28 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 56) Thesis (Master of Librarianship)—University of Washington, 1954. Bibliography: 1. 104-107. 4 cards. \$1.

In seven chapters are recorded the chronological order of events in the story of the library including two chapters telling of special phases of library activities, coordination of the library system and cooperation with other libraries. The connection of the library with the School of Librarianship had to be omitted.

The study shows that the growth of the library and its development closely paralleled that of the institution it served. From modest beginnings the library progressed to the point where it has become one of the important research libraries of the country. Its two most outstanding librarians were William E. Henry and Charles W. Smith.

YOUNG, RAYMOND ARTHUR, 1926-

The Mexico City College Library: its history and its role in international education. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (ii, 101 l. mounted illus., tables. 28 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 57) Thesis (Master of Librarianship)—University of Washington, 1955. Bibliography: 1. 83-90. 3 cards. \$75.

Following the background study of the development of libraries in Mexico generally, and a brief history of the Mexico City College, the story of the library itself is presented and is divided between a chronological presentation of events in the library's history and the role which it performs in international education through librarianship. The study concludes with a summary of the library's activities and contributions to the college, to librarianship, and in turn to international education, together with a presentation of its outlook for future development.

BAUGHMAN, NANCY C. (VERMILYA)

A history of the Otterbein College Library, by Nancy C. Vermilya. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (iv, 49 l. tables. 29 cm. ACR. MICROCARD SERIES, no. 58) Thesis (M.S. in L.S.)—Western Reserve University, 1955. Bibliography: 1. 49. 2 cards. \$50.

The study presents the entire history of the li-

brary from 1858 to 1955 and that of the literary society libraries preceding it. In the first major part the organization and development of the libraries of the literary societies receive attention. The second part records the progress and activities of the college library in each of its five locations, from its beginning to the present time.

ALBERT, WARREN

Governmental public health libraries: state, territorial, municipal. Rochester, N. Y., University of Rochester Press for the Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1956. (v, 75 l. diagr. 29 cm. ACRL MICROCARD SERIES, DO, 59) Master's paper, Library Science 405, University of Illinois, 1955. Bibliography: 1. 70-75, 3 cards. \$75.

The paper was written to bring to the atten-

tion of the library profession the need for study of public health library service and public health librarianship. The following points are emphasized: (1) In view of the increase in federal, state, and local government expenditures for health programs, there will be a greater need for the professional public health worker to know of publishing activities and programs. (2) Reference collections must be established within the various health departments. (3) The role of the library and librarian within the framework of public health must be correctly understood. (4) Some formal organization ought to be established, possibly within the Medical Library Association, to act as a clearing house for information on public health librarianship and to establish policies and standards for public health library practice.

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